



Effects of content marketing on attitude formation in the South African energy drink market.

Benedikt Hirschfelder

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Supervisor
Associate Professor G. Human

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ABSTRACT

The rapid technological innovation of the last decade has altered the way people understand and communicate information. The internet specifically has made possible unprecedented access to information which has added another dimension to consumer and marketing practitioner behaviour. The most salient consequence of these developments in the marketing communication arena has been the transition from domination by the marketing practitioner to that of the consumer. More precisely, the huge product variety and the access to non-commercial information in terms of user-generated content gives the consumer incredible autonomy. Facing these circumstances, marketing practitioners are adjusting their strategies in producing informative or entertaining content to surround their product in order to impact the new complex, user-driven market. This specific type of content driven marketing is referred to as content marketing. While the idea of providing useful content around the product/brand is a well-known marketing strategy, consistent technological innovation enables marketers to approach the consumer in a different way. Encouraged by a proliferation of user-generated content, marketing practitioners have already embraced content marketing and established a considerable case series of effective examples.

Nevertheless, a scholarly analysis of the impact of content marketing on attitude formation has not yet occurred. Thus the goal of this thesis is to unpack content marketing, and explore its impact on the consumer in order to locate content marketing within Integrated Marketing Communications. Specifically, this study investigates how consumers perceive the sponsor through content marketing, and if emotions triggered by this content influence consumer attitudes towards the sponsor. In order to substantiate the theoretical discourse with practical evidence, a video from the energy drink manufacturer Red Bull serves as a research object and real-world example. By demonstrating the particular strengths of the medium, this thesis aims to establish an academic foundation for the analysis of content marketing, and contribute to the content marketing renaissance.

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1. Chapter One: Introduction

1.1. INTRODUCTION

During the last decade, marketing practitioners, researchers and businessmen have faced a rapid transition in marketing. According to Schultz and Schultz (1998) the traditional marketing approaches, which mainly focus on the marketing mix (price, product, promotion, place hereinafter referred to as 4Ps), are outdated. They no longer meet the requirements of today's interactive marketplace. Several authors stated (Brassington and Pettitt, 2006; Kotler *et al.*, 2014) the wide acceptance of the 4Ps mix, particularly among field marketers, due to the formerly well-established theory they were taught in college. Most introductory marketing manuals still embrace the mix as the heart of their structure, describing the 4Ps as adjustable parameters, which govern the buying process.

Despite the high status of the 4Ps as a practical and particularly a theoretical determining framework of appropriate marketing, there are authors who see considerable weakness in the 4Ps theory, expressing doubts and objections concerning the value and the future of the 4Ps mix (Constantinides, 2006). Rapid technological progress and the concomitant changes in the commercial landscape and in consumer and organisational attitudes over the last decade made marketing practitioners explore new practical approaches and/or additions to the 4Ps theory, in order to be able to address specific marketing problems (Constantinides 2006). Some of the thematic entities that have emerged in the last decade are, according to Constantinides (2006): Strategic Marketing, Consumer Marketing, Services Marketing, Industrial Marketing, International Marketing, Social Marketing, Retail Marketing, Non-Profit Marketing, Trade Marketing, Relationship Marketing, Direct Marketing, Network Marketing and Online Marketing.

According to Lewis and Bridger (2011), consumers developed into being progressively demanding, individualistic, involved, independent, better informed and more critical towards advertising in the last decade.

Constantinides (2006) reasons that the transformation of consumer's needs, nature and behaviour, is particularly due to rapid technological advances. According to him, these technological advances are framed by the wide availability of affordable personal computing power and the easy access to the world wide web (internet). These two budding technological areas intensify the pressure on marketing practitioners to switch from mass marketing approaches

towards information technology methods that personalize marketing content for different customer groups (Constantinides, 2006).

According to Constantinides (2006) and Dickinson-Delaporte and Kerr (2014), consumer behaviour is less responsive to traditional marketing stimuli and less sensitive to brands and marketing cues today and more and more consumers and customers rely on user-generated content (hereinafter referred to as UGC). According to Krishnamurthy and Dou (2008), Mangold and Faulds (2009) and Li and Zhan (2011), consumers trust the word of other consumers more (consumers who, for example, have experience with the product) than they trust the promises of marketing practitioners. This old way of content production experienced a second bloom time driven by technological progress. Known in professional circles as electronic word-of-mouth (hereinafter referred to as eWOM), this new way of communication enables individuals to spread and modify (also non-profit) content in the internet (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010; Mangold and Faulds, 2009). This is especially due to the rapid technological progress that consequently produced social media channels. These channels intensified the “spreading process” of UGC. According to Krishnamurthy and Dou (2008), UGC is driven by:

- Individuals or groups with the aim to share knowledge and experience
- The creation of emotional connectivity; and
- Self-expression

This development can be described as a shift from marketer dominance to consumer dominance. Dickinson-Delaporte and Kerr (2014) perceive this development as providing opportunities and risks for advertisers and marketing practitioners. From the consumers’ perspective, social media as the main communication channel of UGC, provides alternative and new response platforms which create a strong social presence and media richness (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). For marketing practitioners, this means less power in the service and marketing sector on the one hand and on the other hand more effort to keep their reputation up.

Yet, social media also has advantages for marketing practitioners. It offers a completely new field to collect data of consumer attitudes, opinions and behaviour.

Based on these facts, marketing practitioners have started to infiltrate social media by generating commercial content, particularly tailored to social media (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2010). When it comes to using social media marketing in order to produce content and market a product/brand/company, marketing with content has become a popular marketing tool in the last decade (CMI, 2015).

Even though, content marketing is really just experiencing the beginning of the blossoming phase, marketing with content has already become a central element of today's marketing strategies (Pulizzi, 2013.a.).

The term content marketing shall be defined as follows:

“Content marketing is a marketing technique of creating and distributing relevant and valuable content to attract, acquire and engage a clearly defined and understood target audience – with the objective of driving profitable customer action (CMI, 2015:1).”

A popular technique of creating valuable content to attract, acquire and engage the consumer/customer in order to build a non-commercial relationship is sponsorship (Meenaghan, 1991.a.; Cornwell, Weeks and Roy, 2005; O'Brien, 2012; Zorrilla, 2014).

The approach of delivering something valuable – in the case of sponsorship: host an event, support athletes, helping sports with less reputation to develop by offering the financial opportunities, etc. is the basic idea behind content marketing. Thus consistent sponsorship applied in content marketing count on a relationship with the consumer/customer builds on trust and preference (O'Brien, 2012; Pulizzi, 2013.a.). This special combination of sponsorship and emotional attachment of the consumer/customer to non-profit content has already been a popular marketing technique in the past and has gained complexity through the relatively new communication channel social media. Particularly in the beverage industry the combination of sponsorship and social media under the pretext of content marketing, has become a popular way to indirectly advertise a product (O'Brien, 2012; Euromonitor International, 2013).

In light of the above, the purpose of this study will be to find out whether there is a link between sponsorship and emotions by using content marketing in the energy drink industry in South Africa. More specifically, this research will be guided by the following two primary objectives:

Main objectives:

- I. To determine if customers perceive the sponsor, by communicating through content marketing in sponsorship.
- II. To determine if emotions, triggered by the sponsorship are influencing the attitude to the sponsors/brand.

Due to the complexity of the term content marketing, this study aims at specifying the basic idea of valuable content from the perspective of marketers. Valuable content differs clearly from commercial content, aiming at a relationship instead of a purchase decision (O'Brien, 2012; Pulizzi, 2013.a.). Particularly social media marketing becomes a connection mechanism in between the different contents, intensifying the popularity of content marketing in the last decade. Considering that there is very little literature dealing with content marketing and particularly no research specifically done on this topic, the main aim of this work is to shed light on content marketing from the scientific point of view. As a consequence, this research provides empirical support for content marketing, offering a conceptual framework, which substantiates the marketing idea behind content marketing. Further, this research may be valuable for content marketing as well as for social media marketing, since it explores a marketing component that has not yet been scientifically interrogated. In this context, this thesis may also provide useful insights for marketing practitioners and lead them to taking the emotional connection into account.

This chapter offers a comprehensive outline of the research and is structured as follows: The first section illustrates the background of this research by explaining content marketing. Subsequently, primary and secondary research objects and the coherent conceptual framework of this thesis are presented in more detail. The next section describes the methodology employed and hereinafter the importance of this research is discussed. The introduction closes with an outline of the structure of the thesis to give the reader an overview of this dissertation.

1.2. SUBSTRUCTURE

There are many perspectives that can be taken when it comes to content marketing. Due to the considerable complexity of this term, this thesis focuses on one theoretical mainstay. In this section, the perspective of marketing practitioners who use sponsorship in marketing is presented in more detail. In addition to that, special attention is paid to indirectly perceived

emotions triggered by sponsorship content, emphasizing the importance of emotions in marketing including content marketing. The section concludes with a discussion of previous research approaches on content-producing sponsorship, with a special focus on the potential emotional arousal triggered by content marketing.

1.2.1. Sponsorship in marketing research

According to Keller (2009), marketing communication activities started to play an important role in building brand reputation and equity. The increasingly complex communication environment, particularly brought about by technological progress in the communication industry, gives consumers more control about what media and commercial messages they choose to consume (Keller, 2009; Donlan and Crowther, 2014). This is why marketing practitioners now carefully consider which forms of marketing communication is best to engage consumers and customers (Westberg and Pope, 2014). A popular form of marketing communication is to enter a commercial partnership with an organization to achieve both marketing and communication objectives. Beside that the patroniser (sponsor) gains reputation for its volunteer commitment (Nan and Heo, 2007; Papasolomou and Kitchen, 2011).

The Independent Evaluation Group (IEG, 2000) defines sponsorship as a cash and/or in-kind fee paid to a property (typically a sport, entertainment, non-profit event or organization) in return for access to the exploitable commercial potential associated with that property. On this basis Cornwell (1995) defines sponsorship-linked marketing as the orchestration and implementation of marketing activities for the purpose of building and communicating an association to a sponsorship. Sleight (1989) describes sponsorship as a useful “hook” around which other marketing communications activities can be hung.

According to the annual IEG Sponsorship Report 2013 (IEG, 2013), the total growth of global sponsorship spending in 2013 is predicted to be around 4.2% compared to 2012 by \$53.3 billion. In terms of these facts and continual growing sponsorship spending, the trend toward out-of-home activities, more precisely watching sports and entertainment (e.g. extreme sports) live or joining non-profit events has become a popular form of recreation. According to Farrelly and Quester (2005), the most common objectives for marketing practitioners to engage in sponsorship are increasing the brand awareness and establishing, strengthening or changing the brand image. Cliffe and Motion (2005) support this statement by emphasizing the brand building power behind sponsorship. However, according to Cornwell, Weeks and Roy (2005) sponsorship is basically used as a reminder for an established brand. They

state it is aimed at creating a constant presence in the consumers mind (Cornwell, Weeks and Roy, 2005). Online/mobile communication technologies increased the variety of available sport events through for example live stream on the internet, TV on mobile phones, etc. on the one hand and on the other hand the accessibility of consumers via newsletters, email reminder etc.. According to Townsend (2000) and Cornwell (2008), this latitude on the consumer side (individual selection of events) builds up an extraordinary emotional connection to the event selected. As a consequence, marketing practitioners engage more and more in sponsoring, even in slightly out-of-home activities, for example fun and extreme sports, to approach to the consumer and build a non-commercial relationship (Puchan, 2004). According to Meenaghan, Amis and Cornwell (2005), the ever-increasing internationalization of sport enables consumers to follow their favourite sports world wide on the one hand and on the other hand make sponsorship an important communication activity for marketing practitioners attempting to create a relationship built on the emotions perceived by the sponsored sport. How marketing practitioners make use of sponsorship-linked events is discussed in the following paragraphs.

1.2.2. Sponsorship-linked marketing events

This section explores how sponsorship-linked events are used by marketing practitioners to create a connection between event (sport, entertainment) and brand with the intention to project the event's reputation on the brand (('rub-off effect') (Dolphin, 2003)). More precisely, the positive non-commercial feelings experienced in connection with the event should rub-off on the brand/company, which is the sponsor, and increase brand recognition (Grönroos and Ravald 2011). In line with this concept Olkkonen, Tukkanen and Alajoutsijärvi (2000) present sponsorship in the 21st century as a two-way communication medium, which, on the one hand offers useful/entertaining value to the consumer and on the other hand builds up a non-commercial relationship. This relationship means: changing the commercial image into that of a trustworthy supporter of the consumers' favourite event. More precisely, sponsorship-linked events allow marketing practitioners to link their product/brand to the passions in people's lives (Donlan and Crowther, 2014). Such being the case, sponsorship-linked events may help to achieve the marketing objectives of: building relations (Farrelly, Quester and Burton 2006), creating customer conversations (Kumar, 1997) and consequently, sustaining customer relations (Donlan and Crowther, 2014). Thus, the use of sponsorship-linked events

in marketing has become a popular tool to engage consumers on a behavioural level (Whelan and Wohlfeil, 2006).

One example for this strategy is Red Bull. The Austrian energy drink manufacturer employs content marketing by sponsoring extreme sport events, creating it with the help of the event-brand experience (O'Brien, 2012). According to Donlan and Crowther (2014), sponsorship-linked events enable a deeper and more meaningful relationship with consumers through relational (Grönroos, 1990), participative (Vargo and Lusch, 2004) and experiential (Parsons and Maclaran, 2009) connection to the sport/brand. Particularly the intimacy and interactivity in the event space, the voluntary and active involvement of attendees and the promotion of a participative and collaborative experience intensify the relationship between brand and consumer (Donlan and Crowther, 2014). This non-commercial and amicable access to the consumers allows marketing practitioners to build up "non-commercial trust" through sponsorship-linked events in environments where the consumers feel comfortable (Donlan and Crowther, 2014).

Technological progress has introduced a widespread use of social media, which are taking in an important part in communication activities before, during and after an event (Donlan and Crowther, 2014). Mangold and Faulds (2009) and Chu and Kim (2011) state that social media enable both organisation to consumer and consumer to organisation communication around an event and consumer-to-consumer communication. Particularly the communication among consumers, for example exchanging experience about a product/brand, has increased in the last decade (Donlan and Crowther, 2014). However the urge to exchange experience about a product/brand is nothing new. It is part of human nature to communicate about these (Scott-Phillips, 2010). Often, this exchange includes a focus on what may be improved in certain products (Welker, 2002; Castells, 2013). What is new is the internet medium, more precisely social media, which allows (immediate) communication. As writes Poynter (2008): the usage of social media extends the opportunities to address consumers and potential customers around a sponsorship-linked event. Furthermore, social media offer both consumers more latitude to communicate between each other and they enable the sponsor/host of the event to access a completely new set of data concerning the event experience (Poynter, 2008). Donlan and Crowther (2014) stress that through the relatively new and enormous proliferation of social media the pressure on marketing practitioners increases. This is particularly due to the difficulty to prevent potential negative eWOM. Therefore,

marketing practitioners need to find ways to infiltrate/influence particularly the consumer-to-consumer communication to benefit from positive eWOM (Park and Lee, 2009).

Another aspect is, according to Donlan and Crowther (2014), that sponsorship-linked events facilitate the interactions of consumers with the sponsoring company. Therefore, focusing on events has the potential to promote positive eWOM. Donlan and Crowther (2014) underline this argument with the promoting character of sponsorship-linked events: giving something valuable (e.g. sport, entertainment) to the consumer without claiming anything in return (Donlan and Crowther, 2014). More precisely: the sponsor may enhance the spectators' experience, this can be by interaction with the sponsor or by valuable content that is offered by the sponsor. Marketing practitioners have therefore turned towards these electronic communication platforms in order to influence particularly eWOM, by offering free and valuable content (Donlan and Crowther, 2014). However, the degree of control is limited for marketing practitioners, particularly because the popularity of the event is for every single consumer. So in the end, the consumer turns his/her thumb up or down and thereby generates negative or positive content. The marketing practitioner has no influence on this (Donlan and Crowther, 2014). For marketing practitioners, this means that working with social media entails to keep constant track of sponsorship expenses and the resulting reputation of sponsorship and sponsorship-linked events.

The evaluation of sponsorship response is a complex topic, considering all the factors, which influence a customer's perception. Therefore a theoretical framework is required. This paper refers to Speed and Thompson (2000) in that matter, who examined the effects of consumers' attitudes about a sport event, their perceptions of sponsor-event fit and their attitudes towards the sponsor on multidimensional measures of sponsorship response. The related theoretical framework by Speed and Thompson (2000) illustrates the various factors influencing sponsorship response and is therefore highly suitable for this research.

1.2.3. Theoretical framework: Determinants of sport sponsorship response

When it comes to evaluating sponsorship effectiveness, Speed and Thompson (2000) applied a conceptual framework on the basis of classical conditioning research. The substantial body of research describes exposure as a necessary but not sufficient condition for the response to promotion in general (Speed and Thompson 2000). Consistent with that, Cortez (1992) describes exposure to the product/brand as the most commonly reported method to evaluate the effectiveness of sponsorship. In this case the main focus lies on measuring the

quantity of exposure, which the sponsor achieves through media coverage of the event (Speed and Thompson, 2000). The theoretical framework of Speed and Thompson (2000) describing the customer's perception of sponsorship (Figure 1.1) is proposed to contribute to a consistent model of determinants of sponsorship response.

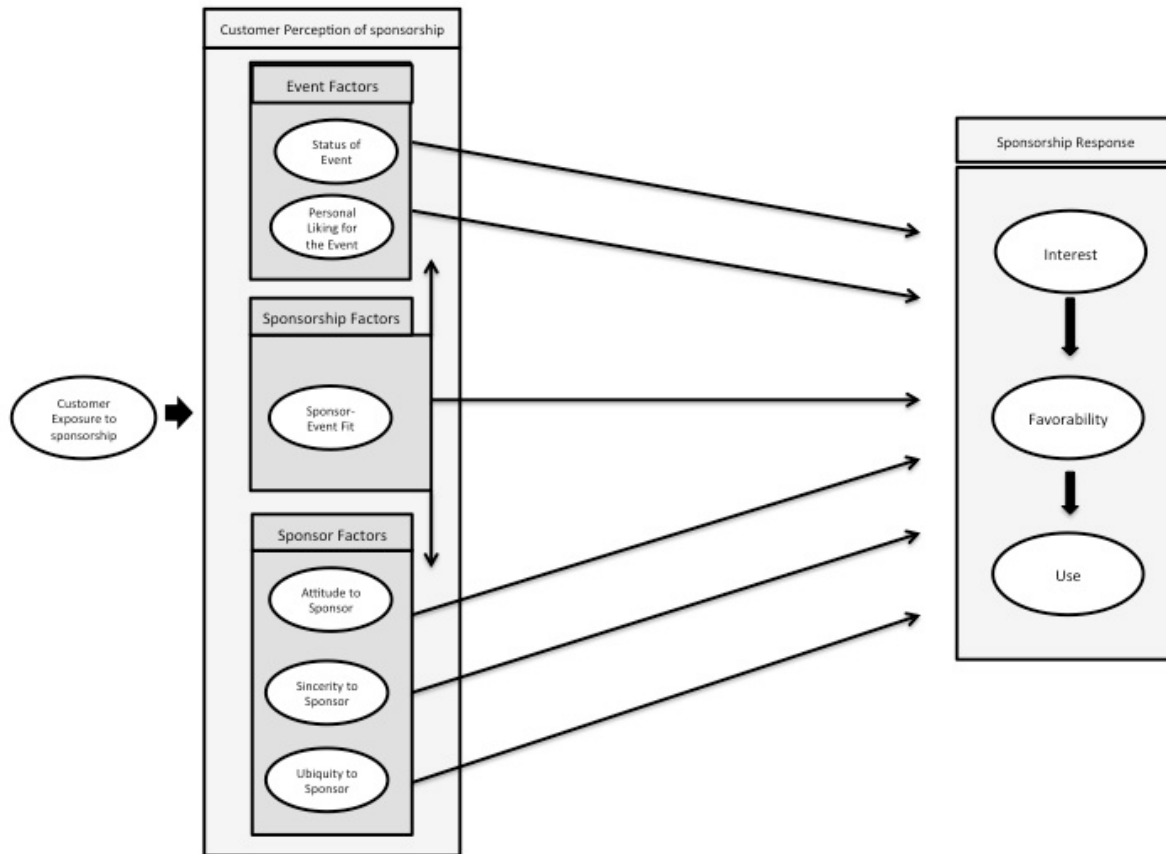


Figure 1.1: Conceptual framework: Sponsorship response

Source: Adopted from Speed and Thompson (2000)

According to Cornwell, Weeks and Roy (2005), the idea of match or congruence between the sponsor and the event (also known as sponsor-event fit, relatedness and similarity) used in the theoretical framework above is the most frequently investigated theoretical concept concerning sponsorship stimuli for sponsorship response (e.g. by Cornwell 1995; Gwinner 1997; Johar and Pham 1999; Cornwell, Pruitt and Van Ness 2001; Rifon *et al.* 2004 and by Speed and Thompson 2000). With sponsor-event fit playing a major role for all other perceptions of sponsorship, this theoretical framework provides the basis for this thesis.

The theoretical framework by Speed and Thompson (2000) offers a consistent model of determinants of sponsorship response by identification and measurement of conceptually distinct constructs. Along with source effects, store atmospherics, brand extension and brand

alliance, sponsorship appears to be an additional field where the association between marketing activities (sponsorship) and a third party (supported activity) enhances the effectiveness of marketing assets (Speed and Thompson, 2000).

As reported by Crimmins and Horn (1996) and Speed and Thompson (2000), sponsorship response is greater when consumers see a fit between sponsor and event. Furthermore, Speed and Thompson (2000) found that: positive association demonstrated between perceived sincerity and sponsorship responses indicate that consumers may be distracted from the actual commercial intention of sponsorship. This does not imply that the consumer completely loses sensitivity concerning the potential non-philanthropic dimensions. However, prior findings of D'Astous and Bitz (1995) and Stipp and Schiavone (1996) support a potential diversion. Speed and Thompson (2000) conclude that marketing practitioners who implement a sponsorship activity that are perceived to be genuine to the consumer and further liked by the sponsorship audience possibly eventuate in superior benefits.

In summary Speed and Thompson (2000) propose that the response to event-sponsorship is affected by:

- (1) Attitudes toward the event
- (2) Attitudes toward the sponsor
- (3) Perception of congruence between sponsor and event.

Attitudes toward the event: On the basis of considerable sponsorship research (Mitchell and Olsen 1981; Shimp, 1981; Petty, Cacioppo and Schumann, 1983), which highlighted the importance of attitude toward an unconditioned stimulus and the perceived feelings for an event (Burke and Edell, 1989), Speed and Thompson (2000) proposed that attitudes toward the event influence the response. If the concept is adapted to today's marketing, two of Speed and Thompson's (2000) constructs allow the assessment of sponsorship response. These are namely: personal liking for the event and perceived status of the event.

Attitudes towards the sponsor: Further sponsorship research highlights the importance of the perception of congruence between sponsor and event or link/fit between the sponsor and the sponsored event (Otker and Hayes, 1987; Crimmins and Horn, 1996; Dean, 2002). In agreement with the fact that the idea of match, link, congruence or fit is the most frequently investigated theoretical concept relating to sponsorship stimuli (e.g. Cornwell 1995; Gwinner 1997; Johar and Pham 1999; Cornwell, Pruitt and Van Ness 2001; Rifon *et al.*, 2004), Speed

and Thompson (2000) integrated sponsor-event fit into their theoretical framework as a moderator.

Perception of congruence between sponsor and event: In combination with the research in attitude toward the event, researchers also examined the impact of attitude toward the brand on the response (Otker and Hayes, 1987; Crimmins and Horn, 1996). That is why Speed and Thompson (2000) integrated attitude toward the sponsor, perceived sincerity of the sponsor, and perceived ubiquity of the sponsor into their theoretical framework.

All these independent measures in Speed and Thompsons (2000) theoretical framework lead to dependent measures (interest, favourability and use), which result in sponsorship response (which assess the response to sponsorship). These dependent measures are operationalized as the respondents' attitudes and intentions through a hierarchy. The hierarchy starts with the interest for the sponsor, leads to favourability towards the sponsor and ends in the consumers' willingness to consider using the sponsors' product (Speed and Thompsons, 2000).

Conclusively, an eminent body of knowledge has developed around the topic sponsorship. This is supported theoretically by several studies about sponsorship and practically through the total growth of global sponsorship spending in the last years. Particularly the examination of the cognitive levers of the persuasion process has created a complex topic in sponsorship literature (Bal *et al.*, 2008). Bal *et al.* (2008), however, argue that there is a particular need for research into perceived emotions, which influence the sponsorship process. Thus the next section examines a possible mediating role of emotions in the sponsorship persuasion process.

1.2.4. Emotions in marketing research

With regard to the psychological research topics in the last few decades, there has been a lot of research on emotions and associated topics (Gaur, Herjanto and Makkar, 2014). Concerning the function of emotions, researchers found that emotions are very useful when it comes to the determination of peoples' behaviours and actions (Carlson *et al.*, 2007). Therefore, research on emotions has been integrated in many applied disciplines, including marketing and sponsorship (Bal *et al.*, 2008). In line with this basic understanding of emotions, Gaur, Herjanto and Makkar (2014) also underline the importance of the research on emotions concerning buying decisions. In order to shed light on the influence of emotions on consumers' behaviour, marketing scholars developed theoretical frameworks on the basis of psychologi-

cal and sociological frameworks (Huang, 2001). However, in marketing as well as in sponsorship, the extent of literature is limited (Bal *et al.*, 2008; Gaur, Herjanto and Makkar, 2014). The existing literature mainly focuses on the measurement of emotional dimensions that may influence the consumer's buying decisions (Erevelles, 1998; Bellman, 2007), cause and consequences (Penz and Hogg, 2011), functions (Eyal and Fishbach, 2007), coping mechanisms (Bee and Madrigal, 2007) and communication (Landwehr, McGill and Herrmann 2011).

Since the research on emotions had started playing a crucial role in marketing, the literature in this area has expanded. In order to gain insight in this literature Gaur, Herjanto and Makkar (2014) reviewed the emotion research conducted within marketing between 2002 and 2013. With 340 emotion-related articles from 19 different marketing journals, Gaur, Herjanto and Makkar (2014) provide a comprehensive and contemporary investigation into marketing research on emotions. Their analysis confirms the importance of emotions in theoretically as well as practically applied marketing. That means for managers to take emotions into account when making decisions and for scholars to continue investigating the role of emotions in the future. Gaur, Herjanto and Makkar (2014) identified five areas in which academic research on emotions has been conducted:

- Marketing
- Advertising
- Consumer Behaviour
- Consumer Psychology
- Retailing

As an approved marketing communication instrument, sponsorship interacts with at least the first four topical areas (Cornwell, 1995). So sponsorship is included in the results on these areas, too. It is therefore a natural step that sponsorship is also influenced by emotions and vice versa. Within the broad domain of sponsorship this study focuses on the interface between event-sponsorship-response and emotional moderation in order to produce valuable content. What mediation role emotions take concerning sponsorship in general is discussed in the next section.

1.2.5. The mediating role of emotions in sponsorship

According to Christensen (2006), sponsorship marketing leads the natural consumers' awareness of the brand away from the commercial message. Pham (1992) and Ferrand and Pages (1999) justify this altered perception by the continuous exposure to the sponsors' message during an event and the inner emotional connection to the sponsored activity. That means in more detail that marketing practitioners deliver specific cognitive, symbolic and affective content with the goal to foster the rub-off effect on the brand for defined social target groups (Ferrand and Pages, 1999). Owing to the benefits of the association of the property's attributes and the sponsor, Bal *et al.* (2008) see the ultimate goal in a modification of the consumer's attitude toward the brand. According to Bal *et al.* (2008), the basis of the rub-off effect – the association between brand and sponsored property – can be divided into three different triggers:

- (1) cognitive trigger, in terms of meaning transfer (McCracken, 1989)
- (2) perception trigger, in form of image transfer (Gwinner and Eaton, 1999)
- (3) attitude trigger, in form of attitude transfer (Crimmins and Horn, 1996).

The fact that the relationship between the consumer and the sponsor is basically a non-verbal one (Ferrand and Pages, 1999) underlines the argument that emotions play a mediating role when it comes to sponsorship. This is explained as follows: A non-verbal relationship means indirect communication. The indirect communication leads to indirect feelings, which result in emotions. These perceived emotions form the trigger for the perception/brand recognition of the sponsor. A theoretical framework, which supports this line of argumentation and explores emotions on sponsorship efficiency, is discussed further on.

1.2.6. Theoretical framework: Emotions on sponsorship efficiency

The following theoretical framework by Bal *et al.* (2008) explains the influence of emotions on the effectiveness of sponsorship. It relies on the basic approach of Mehrabian and Russell (1974; 1977), which concretises emotions. This approach suggests that every emotional response can be represented by pleasure (i.e. valence of the emotion), arousal (i.e. intensity of the emotion) and dominance (i.e. feeling of control over the emotional reaction). When these dimensions are applied, it turns out that the intensity and the valence of emotions are sufficient to represent a broad spectrum of emotional responses (Mehrabian and Russell, 1977; 1974; Derbaix and Pocin, 2005). When it comes to emotions linked to a sport event, these

are tension, suspense, surprise, satisfaction etc. it is the marketing practitioners job to find a marketing message that fits these emotions. Especially, as Bal *et al.* (2008) point out, it should fit emotions of pleasure and arousal, since these two are positively linked to the attitude towards the event (A(event) in Figure 2).

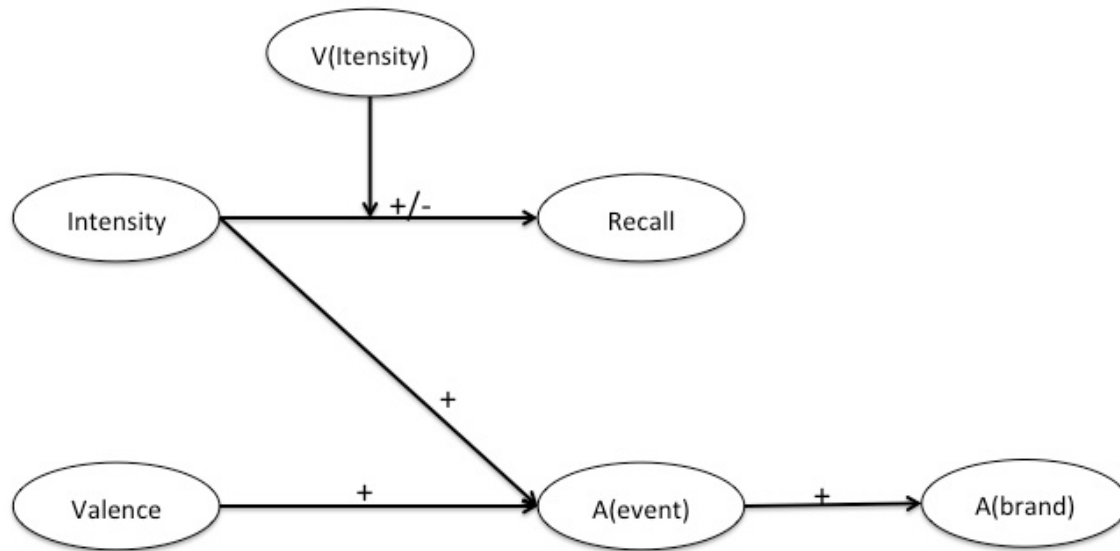


Figure 1.2: Proposed model of emotions influences on sponsorship efficiency

Source: Adopted from Bal *et al.* (2008)

The attitude toward the event as a meeting point between consumers and sponsor – was worked out by Lee, Sandler and Shani (1997) and should be considered as a central concept in sponsorship persuasion. On the basis of this concept Bal *et al.* (2008) determine attitude towards the event as a mediator of intensity and valence on attitude toward the sponsors' brand (A(brand) in Figure 2). Correspondingly, Speed and Thompson (2000) and Quester and Thompson (2001) proved that the attitude towards the sponsor is a valuable indicator of sponsorship response. Thus the emotions elicited by an event will shape the consumer's attitude toward the event and in turn will negatively/positively influence the attitude toward the sponsor. The theoretical purpose of this thesis, how the aforementioned theoretical frameworks combine and what primary and secondary objectives should be met, is presented in the forthcoming section.

1.3. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

In earlier times consumers recognized advertising as interesting product information. Nowadays consumers are hard-pressed to find any benefit or interesting information in advertising. Particularly, internet consumers feel bombarded with advertising or heavily disturbed by it

(Porter and Golan, 2006). While advertising with catchy and emotional information around the product/brand had always been a key strategy to gain the consumer's attention, today's newer strategy for marketing practitioners is to increasingly rely on the power of raw content (Porter and Golan, 2006). Kirby (2004) states that if the content is provocative enough, the product/brand does not have to deliver additional informative value. Since the provocation generates attention and thereby interest. The interest into the product may result in an informative process by the consumer. This chain of events triggered by the provocation has the advantage that the consumer by his/her own starts to experience the product. According to Guadagno *et al.* (2013) the trigger does not have to be necessarily provocative, it just has to be valuable in the eyes of the consumer. Guadagno *et al.* (2013) reason the desire for valuable content (not any longer necessarily connected to the product/brand) and as a consequence therefore the communication of the content (including sharing), in the increase of physiological response induced by high arousal emotions. Hence, modern-day marketing practitioners want to achieve an indirect rub-off effect of the good feeling triggered by the entertaining content on the brand (Porter and Golan, 2006).

Despite the increasing shift to invest in content marketing (Pulizzi and Handley, 2014.a.;.b.), the factors which are critical behind marketing with content remain largely unknown to marketing academics, despite these strategies already being in widespread use (Pulizzi, 2013.a.; Pulizzi and Handley, 2014.a.;.b.).

Among the many potential critical factors on this topic, this study concentrates on sponsorship as a content supplier moderated by emotions. As a popular marketing communication instrument on the one hand (IEG, 2013) and a valuable content-producing tool on the other hand (Meenaghan, 2001), sponsorship assumes an important role in this relatively new marketing strategy.

With the aim to illuminate the term content marketing from an scientific perspective, this research is directed by the following research topic:

Effects of content marketing on attitude formation in the South African energy drink market.

In order to substantiate this research topic, the following research objectives were developed to guide the research process that followed.

Primary objectives:

- I. To determine how consumers perceive the sponsor, through content marketing in sponsorship.
- II. To determine if emotions, triggered by content marketing, influence the attitude towards the sponsors/brand.

Secondary objective:

- I. To determine if content marketing in the energy drink industry sector only appeals to a certain audience.

In order to meet the research objectives and illustrate both the direct effects of emotions on sponsorship and the indirect effects of emotions on content marketing, this study combined two approaches. Drawing on the theoretical foundations provided by Speed and Thompson (2000) and Bal *et al.* (2008) this study expanded the theoretical framework of Speed and Thompson with an emotional moderating function. The final theoretical framework is presented below in Figure 3.

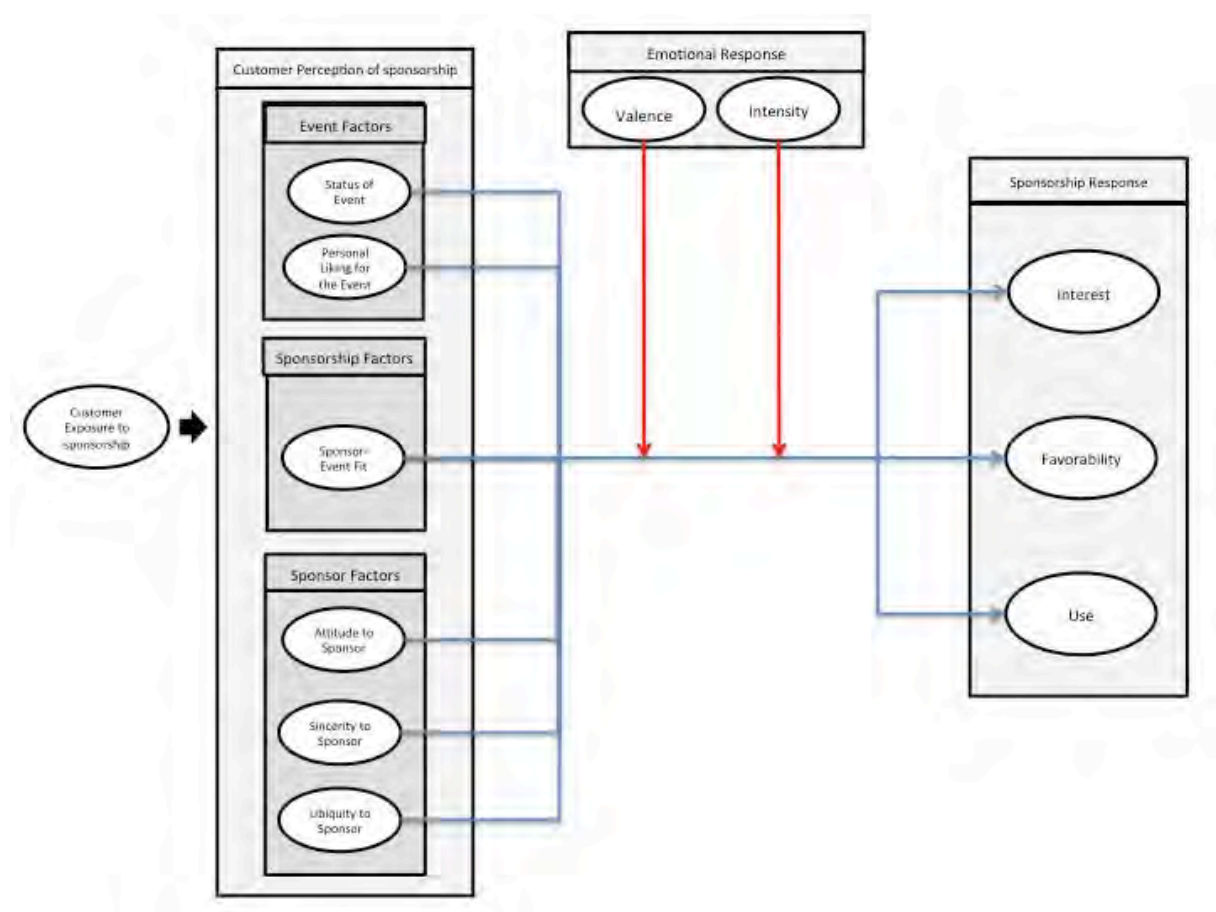


Figure 1.3: Sponsorship emotions framework

Source: Adopted from Speed and Thompson (2000) and Bal *et al.* (2008)

The two theoretical foundations and the resulting sponsorship emotions framework are discussed in more detail in the following chapters of this study. In combination with the new theoretical framework and the primary and secondary objectives the subsequent set of hypothesis was developed. These hypotheses presented hereinafter are the juncture between statistical analysis and interpretation, thus taking in a mainstay of this study.

Hypothesis 1:

There is a positive relationship between the consumers' personal liking of the event and the consumers' response in terms of Interest (H1a), Favourability (H1b) and Use (H1c).

Hypothesis 2:

There is a positive relationship between the perceived status of the event and the consumers' response in terms of Interest (H2a), Favourability (H2b) and Use (H2c).

Hypothesis 3:

There is a positive relationship between the consumers' attitude towards the sponsor and the consumers' response in terms of Interest (H3a), Favourability (H3b) and Use (H3c).

Hypothesis 4:

There is a positive relationship between the consumers' perception of the sincerity of the sponsor and the consumers' response in terms of Interest (H4a), Favourability (H4) and Use (H4c).

Hypothesis 5:

There is a negative relationship between a high-perceived ubiquity of the sponsor and the consumers' response in terms of Interest (H5a), Favourability (H5b) and Use (H5c).

Hypothesis 6:

There is a positive relationship between the perceived sponsor-event fit and the consumers' response in terms of Interest (H6a), Favourability (H6b) and Use (H6c).

Hypothesis 7:

Valence of emotion moderates the relationship between:

H7a: Status of the event and Interest for the sponsor.

H7b: Status of the event and Favourability for the sponsor.

H7c: Status of the event and Use of the product.

H7d: Personal liking for the event and Interest for the sponsor.

- H7e: Personal liking for the event and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H7f: Personal liking for the event and Use of the product.
- H7g: Attitude to sponsor and Interest for the sponsor.
- H7h: Attitude to sponsor and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H7i: Attitude to sponsor and Use of the product.
- H7j: Sincerity of sponsor and Interest for the sponsor.
- H7k: Sincerity of sponsor and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H7l: Sincerity of sponsor and Use of the product.
- H7m: Ubiquity of sponsor and Interest for the sponsor.
- H7n: Ubiquity of sponsor and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H7o: Ubiquity of sponsor and Use of the product.

Hypothesis 8:

Intensity of emotion moderates the relationship between:

- H8a: Status of the event and Interest for the sponsor.
- H8b: Status of the event and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H8c: Status of the event and Use of the product.
- H8d: Personal liking for the event and Interest for the sponsor.
- H8e: Personal liking for the event and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H8f: Personal liking for the event and Use of the product.
- H8g: Attitude to sponsor and Interest for the sponsor.
- H8h: Attitude to sponsor and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H8i: Attitude to sponsor and Use of the product.
- H8j: Sincerity of sponsor and Interest for the sponsor.
- H8k: Sincerity of sponsor and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H8l: Sincerity of sponsor and Use of the product.
- H8m: Ubiquity of sponsor and Interest for the sponsor.
- H8n: Ubiquity of sponsor and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H8o: Ubiquity of sponsor and Use of the product.

In the following sections, the methodology developed to verify these nine hypotheses is briefly presented.

1.4. METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this research was to prove that content marketing has an effect on the attitude formation of energy drink customers in South Africa. A descriptive research approach, which generally describes market characteristics or functions (Malhotra, 2010) turned out to be most appropriate. In the field of marketing a descriptive approach to research is common practice, is a descriptive approach. This approach aims at illuminating a specific problem and verbalizes it with hypotheses to.

The object for the survey was a promotional video with content marketing character by the energy drink manufacturer Red Bull (Best of Red Bull all the time, 2013). Representing the idea of content marketing, the video's focus is the athletic performance, not the promotion of the brand. Thus the only direct connection to the brand is the brand placement from Red Bull in the target video. The nub of the matter in this research is the indirectly emotionally triggered connection to the brand and to the sponsor as a result.

In order to test whether the video triggers emotions likely to influence brand awareness and subsequently identification with the brand, a pre-test was included. The related questionnaire verifying the whole conceptual framework was also pre-tested. Both stages are described in detail in chapter 5. Due to the fact that the respondents were exposed to a video before they completed the questionnaire, a paper-based survey turned out to be the best fitting procedure. After the evaluation and preparation of the data (interviewing random people, students and extreme sport athletes) and the data preparation the resulting dataset was analysed with SPSS and SmartPLS statistic programs. In order to deliver an all-encompassing overview of the methodology employed, the next sections depict measurement and scaling, questionnaire design, sampling, data collection and preparation and statistical analysis.

1.4.1. Measuring and scaling

Measurement, i.e. research instruments/measurement tools (e.g. questionnaires, scales etc.) is designed to obtain data on a topic of interest from research subjects (Malhotra, 2010).

Due to the fact that little literature and no secondary data, which describe the required way of looking at content marketing, it was necessary to evaluate primary data to illuminate the topic of interest. A questionnaire covering the thesis' requirements was developed to serve this

purpose. For measurement and scaling the questionnaire was divided into the following four constructs:

- (1) Introduction construct
- (2) Sponsorship construct
- (3) Emotion construct
- (4) Socioeconomic construct

Since the introduction construct and the socioeconomic construct include only questions that assure that the respondents fit into the target group, these two constructs can be summed up as screening questions (Malhotra, 2010). The sole aim of the introduction construct was to find out whether the sponsor of the video is noticed or not, and so a scale with few answer options was adequate. The Likert-type scale is a popular itemized rating scale (Malhotra, 2010). It is a method to measure personal attitude that is queried by means of items. The items are positively or negatively framed statements about an issue to which respondents can agree or disagree in several predetermined gradations. A Likert-type scale consists not of a single, but several items that are often divided into scales and form a questionnaire (Hartley and Betts, 2010; Malhotra, 2010). So the introduction construct made use of a 3-item, 5-point Likert-type scale. Why three items are used instead of only one to assure that the sponsor is perceived is discussed in the questionnaire design section. At the end of the questionnaire, the socioeconomic construct ensured, with a box for the respondent's age, that they fit the target group. A male/female box hinting to operationalizing the secondary research objective was presented at the surveys' end. Which scale was used to operationalize the sponsorship and emotion construct is discussed in the following.

It seems reasonable, relying on Speed and Thompsons (2000) theoretical framework, to use their scales in order to provide a reliable construct. Speed and Thompson (2000) made use of non-comparative itemized rating scales to verify their research hypothesis. Indeed non-comparative itemized rating scales are popular when it comes to marketing evaluations (Malhotra, 2010). Unlike in the introduction construct, in the sponsorship construct the rating characteristics matter. Thus a 7-point Likert-type scale was used to provide a scientifically adequate answer option for the respondents (Malhotra, 2010). The items varied between 3-5, depending on how well one variable could be recorded in the pre-test. In total the following 6 variables were made measurable with the 3/5-item 7-point Likert-type scale: personal liking of the video (Hypothesis 1), status of the event (Hypothesis 2), attitude towards the sponsor

(Hypothesis 3), perceived sincerity (Hypothesis 4), perceived ubiquity (Hypothesis 5), and sponsor-event fit (Hypothesis 6).

The emotional construct relies on Edell and Burkes' (1987) semantic feeling scale in order to make the hypotheses measurable. Similar to that is the semantic differential scale, today a popular rating scale to measure attitudes in marketing research (Malhotra, 2010). According to Malhotra (2010) this scale has been successfully used in comparing brand, product and company images. With the help of these two scale constructs, the hypotheses (7,8) concerning the valence and intensity of the emotion were verified. Two 6-item, 7-point rating scales, bounded at each end by one of two bipolar adjectives was employed to measure the valence and intensity of the emotion felt during the video. How these four raw scales were put together to one questionnaire design is discussed hereinafter.

1.4.2. Questionnaire design

Malhotra (2010) defines a questionnaire as a formalized set of questions for obtaining information from respondents. The development of the actual form design (questionnaire) is an important step in the questionnaire perfection process and thus needs to be well thought through (Malhotra, 2010).

When it comes to the questionnaire design of this research, the structure described in the section above (1.4.1 Measurement and scaling) was extended with a cover page and the ethical requirements of the Commerce Faculty Ethics in Research Committee (Appendix A).

After that the introductory screening question followed. It was accompanied by two opening questions that, according to Malhotra (2010), may intensify the confidence and cooperation of the respondents at the beginning of the questionnaire.

The third part (sponsorship construct) was introduced by a short sentence acquainting the respondents with the defined grid. All the nine measurement categories concerning sponsorship were equipped with a headline to improve clarity.

In order to maintain the clear questionnaire design, the fourth part (emotional construct) was introduced by two sentences, since a new grid was used (semantic differential).

Finally, the fifth part included the personal questions with socioeconomic character to categorize the respondents. The following section gives a rough overview of the sampling techniques used in this research.

1.4.3. Sampling

Statistical sampling focuses on the representative rendition of a specified part of the population. Performing an experiment with a target group, and extrapolating it back to the target population as a whole achieve this. Malhotra (2010) subdivides the sampling design process into the following five steps: define the target population, determine the sample frame, select a sampling technique, determine the sample size and execute the sampling process. On the basis of these findings the next paragraphs will set forth the statistical sampling for this study.

The target population can be broadly defined as between the ages of 18 and 35 with no gender bias. When it comes to the sample frame in this research only a rough pre-collocation of devices to draw the sample has been established. Consequently the target population is specified as a random questionnaire procedure on campus of the University of Cape Town and randomly selected respondents in Cape Town. The mobile survey concentrates – due to the extreme sports content of the research material – only on (fun/extreme) sport athletes. In order to ensure that the respondents match the sampling frame criteria and understand the keynote of the research material, the questionnaire contains filter questions at the beginning and the end.

Summarizing, the target population can be described as nonprobability random selection, chosen for its easy availability. For these reasons and following Malhotra (2010), convenience sampling was chosen for this research. The determination of the sample size is a complex process including qualitative and quantitative considerations (Malhotra, 2010). With respect to the complex theoretical framework of this study and the objective to test the emotional moderation of the sponsorship construct, a sample size of at least 300 participants is required. Concurrent with this qualitative consideration, of course when it comes to illuminating a relatively new marketing concept in order to provide a reliable base for future research, the motto is: the bigger the sample, the better. So, in order to meet qualitative and quantitative requirements of this research, the aim was to reach a sample size of 550 useable questionnaires.

The survey was conducted as follows: The respondents were asked to take part in a 10-minute questionnaire; all participants were informed before the survey that participation is voluntary. The survey took place in a classroom atmosphere. Then the video was presented to the participants and the questionnaire completed in the following. The next section addresses data collection and preparation.

1.4.4. Data collection and preparation

The data collection for this study took place at the University of Cape Town and at mobile spots. In more detail, in lectures of the School of Management Studies of the University of Cape Town, outside the upper campus of the University of Cape Town and at different locations where extreme sports are performed in Cape Town (beaches, mountains, etc.). The timeframe for the data collection was set from the 01 January 2015 until the 08 March 2015. After the collection of the data, the data-preparation process for analysis followed. The data-preparation process, where raw field data are transformed into statistically usable input, is key for a research and should be performed with extreme accuracy (Malhotra, 2010). This research strictly followed the data-preparation process laid out by Malhotra (2010). According to Malhotra (2010), the preparation process starts already with the preliminary terms of the methodology, specifically the questionnaire design and the pre-test. The pre-test was conducted with 45 marketing students of the School of Management Studies of the University of Cape Town and a short discussion after the data evaluation resulted in a helpful feedback. The statistical analysis of the pre-test resulted in a few changes of the questionnaire design, in order to improve the main survey and the subsequent data-preparation process. Due to this groundwork the main data-preparation process: questionnaire checking, editing, coding, transcribing, data cleaning and statistical adjusting was associated with little effort. How the processed data was used to test the hypotheses is explained in the next section.

1.4.5. Statistical considerations

The statistical data analysis was subdivided into a descriptive and inferential analysis. The descriptive statistical analysis shed light on the data set by simplifying it, instead of aiming on predictions or inferences like inferential statistics (Pallant, 2013). The descriptive results for this study were raised with the help of Microsoft Excel and the statistic software SmartPLS. Essentially the mean and standard deviation was evaluated presenting tendencies of the sample data.

Beyond the scope of interpreting tendencies, inferential statistics projects outcomes of the sample data on the population. More precisely, inferential statistic analysis allows a deep insight through estimations of parameters with which help hypotheses can be reviewed (Toutenburg, 2008). The inferential statistic section used partial least squares structural equation modeling (hereinafter referred to as PLS-SEM) to operationalize the associated six hypotheses. The PLS-SEM results were raised with the software SmartPLS. With respect to

the moderation model the software SPSS in combination with the macro PROCESS was used to verify the two hypotheses concerning moderation (Hayes, 2015).

1.5. RELEVANCE OF THE RESEARCH

Indeed, marketing with valuable content is an old concept. However, today's technological opportunities, including the internet and its' complex communication channels (social media etc.), have changed the field of application for content marketing (Pulizzi, 2012.a.). The following examples illustrate that content marketing is already in practical as well as in theoretical use.

When it comes to the practical application of content marketing the Austrian energy drink manufacturer Red Bull is a suitable long-term example of successful content marketing. Since 1988, the energy drink manufacturer has concentrated more on communicating content than on actual product advertisement (Red Bull, 2015). This differentiation on content marketing strategy ensured and ensures that the company holds an unrivalled market leadership in the energy drink market (O'Brien, 2012; Euromonitor International, 2013).

When it comes to the theoretical use of content marketing, commercial consulting services like Content Marketing Institute (CMI, 2015) or MarketingProfs (2015) already make use of the marketing with content. Consultancies offer a lot of freely available content around the topic content marketing and promise an improvement of the user's marketing when additional chargeable services are bought. Companies such as the Content Marketing Institute and MarketingProfs (2015) rely on complex content marketing strategies, nevertheless the scientific background is relatively meager due to the novelty of the topic (CMI, 2015; MarketingProfs, 2015).

The 10-week online content marketing short course offered by the University of Cape Town in corporation with the course provider "Getsmarter" (2015), underlines the demand and need for more scientific research in this topic.

Due to this lack of scientific knowledge, this study aims at laying the foundation for the scientific portrayal of content marketing.

Thus, resulting insights may provide a scientific starting point for:

- the positioning of content marketing in the marketing context,
- the non-commercial understanding of content marketing,
- and the basis for future research.

Summarizing, this study may provide new insights for academic and commercial use through the revelation of “the black-box” content marketing. In order to give the reader insight into what follows this introduction, the next section presents the structure of this thesis.

1.6. COMPOSITION OF DISSERTATION

This master thesis is structured in line with Malhotras’ (2010) marketing research process steps. This means the introduction offers a comprehensive overview of content marketing and addresses the primary objectives of the research. The main aim of the introduction is to make the reader familiar with the research topic and provide a guide to this thesis.

The following three chapters (2. Content Marketing, 3. Sponsorship and, 4. Online Video Marketing) represent the literature review and enlighten the coherences and gaps of existing literature concerning the effects of content marketing on attitude formation in online video marketing.

The 5th chapter describes the research design in detail, ending in a final questionnaire design and an explanation of which descriptive and inferential statistical analysis methods are relevant for this research.

The results of the data-set evaluation are presented in the 6th chapter. More precisely this chapter analyses the SmartPLS and SPSS outcomes in order to verify the thesis hypotheses.

The final Chapter (7. Conclusion) sums up the findings, illustrates the limitations and offers thought-provoking impulses for further research in content marketing. Figure 1.4 visualises the thesis structure based on Malhotras’ marketing research process (2010).

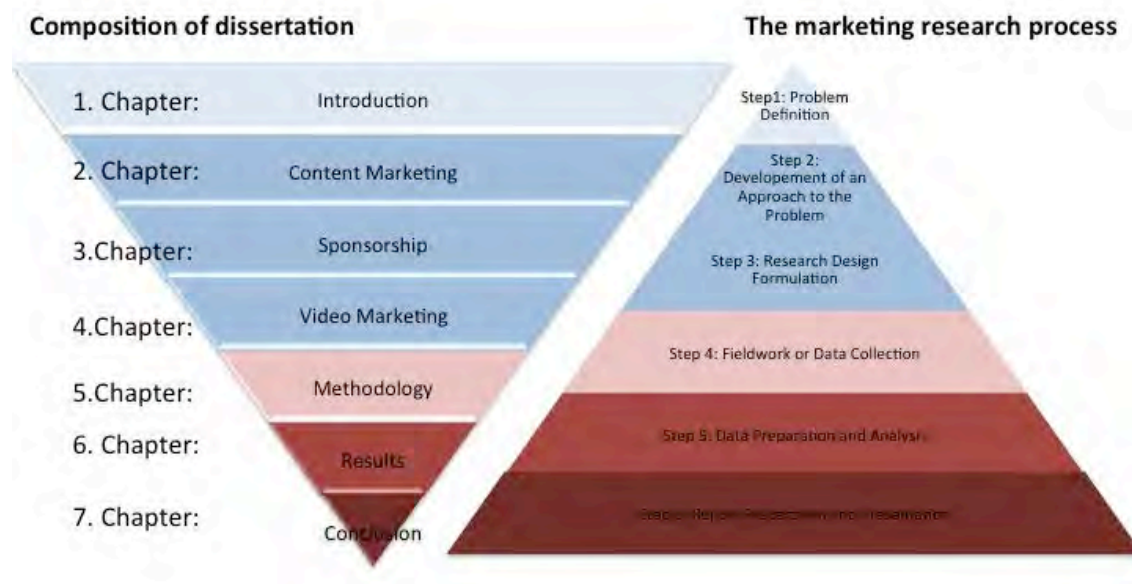


Figure 1.4: Composition of dissertation

Source: Adopted from Malhotra (2010)

1.7. CONCLUSION

Technological progress and the concomitant complexity of the world wide web offer great opportunities for marketing practitioners to advertise their product/brand (Broxton *et al.* 2013). Particularly the marketing with valuable content experiences a renaissance with the use of social media communication channels (Pulizzi, 2012.a.). Since logic does not allow a balance between theory and practice, when it comes to content marketing there is an asymmetry. As section 1.5 (Relevance of Research) illustrated the importance of academic research in content marketing, the chapter above also argued that scientific research in this matter is of great relevance. The complexity and novelty of content marketing insist that this study may set a foundation for the still more academic research required to catch-up with the pervasive practical employment of content marketing by advertisers.

This introductory chapter's intent was to acquaint the reader with content marketing and offer an overview of what this research is about. After a short introduction, the basis of this study including the theoretical framework and corresponding hypotheses were discussed. Subsequently the structure of the methodology was explained in summary. Examples of the business world substantiated the importance of this research. A brief presentation of the composition of this thesis closed this chapter. The following three chapters will review the existing literature and offer a more precise understanding of the foundation of this thesis.

2. Chapter Two: Content Marketing

2.1. INTRODUCTION

The technological progress and especially the proliferation of commercial and private use of the internet implicates an extension of communication possibilities for marketers as well as for consumers (Mangold and Faulds, 2009). On the one hand it enables marketers to reach hundreds or even thousands of consumers world wide and on the other hand it enables consumers to generate content and communicate among each other.

According to Mangold and Faulds (2009) consumers are gradually turning away from traditional internet advertising and demand more control over their media, as well as immediate access to information. Consumer-generated content as an alternative to marketer-generated content (advertising) has become a popular information source for internet users in particular (Rowley, 2008; Holliman and Rowley, 2014.). This chapter argues that content marketing is a hybrid of Integrated Marketing Communication (hereinafter referred to as IMC), since it enables companies to communicate with a broad target audience in the traditional sense, while it enables customers to talk to each other in a non-traditional sense. When it comes to the UCG, marketers have no direct control over content, timing and frequency (Holliman and Rowley, 2014). This distinguishes it remarkably from traditional IMC paradigm, where a high degree of control is important (Schultz, Patti and Kitchen, 2011). Therefore, managers make use of communication methods such as content marketing in order to shape discussions in a manner that is consistent with the organization's mission and its performance goals.

This chapter will review the literature by providing theories of content marketing and classify it in the framework of IMC. In order to depict content marketing in the context of consumer behavior and attitude formation, it is necessary to begin with an overview of the basics to understand the impact of content marketing. Thus, the first part of chapter 2 will define the term content marketing and describe its classification in IMC. Subsequently, the chapter explains how content marketing complements the promotional mix and where within the mix it is located. A comprehensive discussion on how content marketing may be employed and how important it is in the promotional mix concludes the first part. The second part of chapter 2 describes the various content marketing communication channels. Requirements and prospects of these channels are discussed in more detail in the following. Conclusively all facts and findings of chapter 2 are summed up. The following section will now discuss the significant cornerstones of content marketing by a synthesis of existing definitions.

2.2. DEFINING CONTENT MARKETING

Although content marketing is a relatively new type of marketing, for Pulizzi (2013.a.), the marketing with content has already become a central element of online strategies. Joe Pulizzi, founder of the Content Marketing Institute (hereinafter referred to as CMI), “the leading evangelist for content marketing”, was one of the first to recognise the potential of the marketing with content (CMI, 2015). The CMI’s mission is to advance the commercial practice of content marketing through active use, by providing information on the topic. During the 6 years of involvement with the topic, the website CMI has become one of the leading providers of content marketing information online. Despite the fact that the CMI has a commercial consulting background, the website has developed into the leading knowhow provider regarding content marketing due to the immense free supply of content (CMI, 2015). The CMI (2015:1) defines the strategy as follows:

“Content marketing is a marketing technique of creating and distributing relevant and valuable content to attract, acquire and engage a clearly defined and understood target audience – with the objective of driving profitable customer action.”

This definition aims at underlining the importance of creating and providing relevant, interesting and valuable content. The second aspect of the definition emphasizes the participation of the user and the possibility to direct marketing at a specific target group. Thus the resulting intended profitable consumer action does not aim at rising sales figures. It is more the art of communicating with the customers and about prospects without selling (Pulizzi, 2013.a.).

As the owner of PublizistikProjekte, Giesen (2015) is a provider of content marketing solutions in Germany, Switzerland and Austria. Exemplarily and in complete agreement with the sense of content marketing, since 2 and half years Giesen (2015) provides a content marketing blog free of charge, offering content in form of expert knowledge, example strategies and implementation advice. Slightly different to the CMI definition, Giesen (2015) underlines the contrast to traditional advertising/marketing and thereby adds an important aspect of content marketing.

Giesne (2015) defines content marketing as a marketing technique that appeals to individual people through informational, advisory and entertaining content in order to convince them of the company’s goals. In contrast to traditional advertising techniques where the positive representation of the company is central to the advertisement; content marketing concentrates

on providing useful information or appealing entertainment with a more subtle reference to the company or the brand. Content marketing engages with specialized press, consulting and entertaining media. It reaches its goals by presenting content as an expert, a consultant or an entertainer. By doing this, the content producer displays know-how beyond the standard product claims. Content marketing is disseminated through text, images, videos, podcasts or graphics (Giesen, 2015).

A further definition is offered by O'Brien (2012). He believes that the central idea of content marketing is that a brand must give something valuable to receive something valuable in return. This may be by sponsoring an event (which is the central focus of the video or message produced). The value returned is that people associate good things with – and return to engage with – the sponsoring brand. By introducing the aspect of offering or giving something, O'Brien (2012) mentioning another important point for a comprehensive understanding of content marketing.

However, all three definitions present the intention of content marketing very similarly. Therefore, it is rather the wide-ranging applications of content marketing in the business context and the fact that little academic research exist when it comes to content marketing, which complicates a clear definition of it. Thus, before a classification of content marketing in the IMC is made, a comprehensive definition for this thesis is discussed further on.

When it comes to content marketing the present definitions showed that it enables communication of content through a large variety of communication channels like text, images, videos, podcasts or graphics. With these main ideas of the three definitions selected, a comprehensive definition for this thesis shall be formulated.

According to Pulizzi (2013.a.) content marketing is the art of listening to the consumers/customers and to communicate useful or entertaining content instead of setting priorities on purchase (as in direct marketing). Giesen (2015) additionally underlines the contrast to traditional advertising. Based on the assumption of a change from marketer dominance to consumer dominance, Giesen (2015) stresses that consumers are less interested in a mere representation of the company/brand and more attracted to additional useful or entertaining content (Giesen, 2015). O'Brien (2012) extends this thought by postulating that the central idea of content marketing is: A brand must give something valuable to receive something valuable in return. The value returned is that people associate good things with, and in return engage with, the sponsoring brand. Therefore, the notion of offering or giving something is

an integral part of content marketing. With this framework, the following definition of content marketing for this thesis can be presented:

Content marketing is a promotion strategy, which extends the promotional mix, and makes use of several communication channels, particularly of social media channels. It focuses on offering something valuable to the consumer/customer for free. By taking consumer-generated content into account and communicating with the audience with a non-purchase-pushing intention and by using appealing, useful or entertaining content, the strategy aims at building trust and a long-term relationship to the consumer/customer.

Classifying content marketing as an element of the promotional mix as well as the IMC, clarifies that the commercial use of communicating content already is an integral part of promotional marketing. What position content marketing has in the IMC and how it classifies in the promotional mix will be discussed further on.

2.3. THE CLASSIFICATION OF CONTENT MARKETING IN THE IMC

According to Luan and Sudhir (2010) the growing sales market has increased the consumers/customers' expectations of service and quality over the past decade. This means in more detail that the consumers/customers have more opportunities to compare (prices, products, services, etc.), share brand/product experience and choose products/services in a complex and highly competitive market. Introducing successful new products or services into the market is vital for the long-term growth of a company (Kotler, Keller and Bliemel, 2007). Before a product launch, marketers create an individual marketing strategy based on the marketing mix, in order to maximize the chance of success (Luan and Sudhir, 2010). The marketing mix, with its four P's: price, product, promotion and place, provides the basis for a well-structured marketing strategy. The definition of content marketing in the previous section described it as an explicitly promotional strategy which is to be located in the promotional area of the marketing mix (advertising, personal selling, sales promotion, public relations, direct marketing) (Lieb, 2011). These promotion methods are also known as the promotional mix. According to Lieb (2011), this promotional mix, containing any method and channel of communication that marketers use to provide information to different parties about the product, is highly influenced by the IMC concept. According to Peltier, Schibrowsky and Schultz (2003) the understanding of the conceptual and strategic impacts of IMC has become in-

creasingly important over the past decade. Broadly defined, IMC is a concept of marketing communication planning. It ensures that all forms of communication channels of the promotional mix are carefully linked together. Its main goal in combining these is to provide clarity, consistency and maximum communication impact (Schultz, Patti and Kitchen 2011). Applied to the promotional mix, the concept ensures that all five instruments of the promotional mix are effectively linked together by coordinating and controlling the various elements of the mix with the intention to produce a unified customer-focused message (Mangold and Faulds, 2009).

“Integrated Marketing Communications is the strategic co-ordination of all messages and media used by an organisation to collectively influence its perceived brand value (Keegan, Moriarty, and Duncan, 1992:193).”

The IMC concept needs to adapt to all given and potentially varying communication circumstances in order to ensure competitiveness. Thus, the integration of a promotion strategy such as content marketing into the promotional mix, is necessary but requires changes in the IMC concept (Gurau, 2008). Gurau (2008) sees a need for a reconfiguration of every individual instrument and the mergence of them, in order to still achieve a competitively viable IMC concept. The following paragraph aims at explaining this standpoint by discussing in what way content marketing interacts and influences the other promotion instruments and how the IMC needs to adapt.

The content marketing instrument personal selling is applied indirectly during events. The direct and personal connection to the company that is build up during an event can cause a memorable and emotional brand experiences (Zarantonello and Schmitt, 2013). Marketers deploy qualified salesmen to build up a closer relationship with the consumer/customer and push them softly, indirectly to purchase, by taking advantages of the positive atmosphere during the event experience (Shannahan *et al.*, 2013). When it comes to the contact in person, the salesmen focus on the content marketing keynote. This means that the main focus lies on providing useful information to the consumer/costumer and making a positive impression, while the sale itself is less important (Nahorniak, 2013; Pulizzi, 2012.b.; Pulizzi, 2013.c.).

With respect to public relations (hereinafter referred to as PR), creating and providing content has always been a key discipline of PR agencies. They research facts and trends and devel-

op informative material (Puttenat, 2012). In contrast to advertising, which approaches the consumer/customer and aims at triggering a need, PR approaches the consumer/customer directly, builds up a relationship and provides useful content (Deg, 2012). Building and managing relationships with the company's environment an organization or individual's audience is central in public relations (Sullivan, 2013). Especially in today's reality, which is highly influenced by consumer-generated content, managing relations becomes an integral part of marketing (Sullivan, 2013). Compared to traditional PR (main focus on creating content), the challenges for an effective PR strategy have increased. On the one hand, markets are required to produce even higher quality content (content that may become viral) and on the other hand, marketers need to efficiently and successfully interact with the audience across all channels, both of which go beyond the traditional scope.

Direct marketing allows the company a direct communication with the consumer/customer through advertising techniques. They include: mobile phone text messaging, email, interactive consumer websites, online display advertisements, database marketing, brochures, promotional letters, target television commercials, response-generating newspaper/magazine advertisements and social media (Kreutzer, 2009). Pulizzi (2007) names direct marketing in connection with content marketing by calling it "direct marketing with a higher purpose". While the main goal of content marketing is to build a relationship to the consumer/customer by providing useful or entertaining content through several communication channels (O'Brien, 2012), generating an individual and complex response (Pulizzi, 2007; 2013.a.), direct marketing aims at creating a purchase situation by focusing on appealing promotion instead of a long-term relationship (Guido *et al.*, 2011).

Given the fact that today's consumers are less interested in traditional promotion (Mangold and Faulds, 2009; Pulizzi, 2013.a.) and more and more organized and informed when it comes to product ranges, a close relationship to the consumer/customer is a clear advantage to remain competitive (Pulizzi, 2007).

According to Crespo-Almendros and Del Barrio-Gracia (2014), sales promotion is more and more influenced by the internet, particularly because of the impact of online sales promotion (digital coupons, sale e-newsletter, etc.). The internet enables a cheaper and faster way to communicate sales promotion compared to traditional sales promotion (physical coupons, contests, etc.) (Crespo-Almendros and Del Barrio-Gracia, 2014). Online sales promotion developed into a serious and very popular promotion tool. Due to the great popularity and the

relatively cheap organization, web users are “bombarded” with offers and promotions (Crespo-Almendros and Del Barrio-Gracia, 2014). The huge availability and the change to consumer-dominated marketplaces causes consumers/customers to consider twice which online sales promotions are interesting for them (Hu, Lin and Zhang 2002; Keller, 2012). This fact requires techniques that improve brand awareness to build up a closer connection to the brand/company (Crespo-Almendros and Del Barrio-Gracia, 2014). Crespo-Almendros and Del Barrio-Gracia argue that the greater the consumer’s brand awareness, the less they consider twice when it comes to sales promotions. Means of brand awareness are traditional advertising and creative, content-rich campaigns, including the provision of services beyond the customers’ expectations, fast response times and impressing the customers with extraordinary content, for example through consumer-appealing sponsoring campaigns (Keller, 2012). Sales promotions make use of the traditional advertising push strategy, send out messages with the only purpose to expedite the purchase (Agrawal, 1996). While the use of traditional advertising is a direct sales promotional tool, creative, content-rich campaigns affect sales promotions in an indirect way. According to Agrawal (1996), the purpose of a content campaign is to entertain, allure and inform the consumer/customer in order to attract them to the brand. In contrast to push advertising, where sales promotion and accomplished purchase stands in the foreground, in pull advertising the relationship with the consumer is the main focus (Agrawal, 1996). By providing something valuable instead of trying to push the consumer to purchase, the company’s reputation improves and a relationship may be built up (Cope, 2014). The resulting trust into the company raises the consumers’ awareness for the brand and at the same time increases the interest in and openness for sales promotions. The fact that content marketing affects direct advertising tools like sales promotions underlines the great importance of the integration of content marketing into today’s IMC strategies.

Content marketing can be seen as bridge application, opening up to the consumer by considering the change from marketer dominance to consumer dominance. In contrast to the traditional promotion instruments that concentrate on a communication with commercial, ulterior motives, content marketing concentrates on giving the consumer/customer something valuable to build up trust and a long-term relationship.

With these findings as a basis, it can be concluded that content marketing, especially when it comes to the coordination of UCG and building up trust/reputation, has become an important promotion strategy in the IMC. What problems a classification of this relatively new promotion

strategy implies and how content marketing may be classified into the promotional mix is discussed further on.

2.3.1. The classification of content marketing in the promotional mix

The principle of improving a company's reputation with the help of additional, free content has a longstanding tradition (Pulizzi, 2012.a.). However, there is an innovation that has brought remarkable changes: Due to the possibility to use online communication channels (which are free as well) to improve the company's reputation, content marketing experiences a second heyday (Pulizzi, 2013.a.) The technological possibilities (internet, smart phones, tablets etc.) created a need and opportunity to exploit online communication channels commercially. Consumer preferences have changed, there is a shift from push to pull online advertising. This relatively new online world offers customer intimacy with the customer. Customer loyalty, closer relationships and increased customer care are advantages that can be achieved through these channels. When it comes to the question of how these advantages can be achieved, the majority of the authors agree that providing high quality and useful or entertaining content is the answer (Pulizzi, 2013.a.; Giesen, 2015; O'Brien, 2012). However, there are only few sources and all of them have a consulting/advising character. They set priorities for commercially effective implementations and hence limit the opportunity for a comprehensive view on content marketing. In summary it can be said, therefore, that little is known about the classification in the promotional mix of this relatively new second content marketing heyday, brought about by online communication channels and the elaborated opportunities to provide high quality content. In order to provide something valuable beyond the product and traditional marketing, content marketing makes use of various communication channels (Giesen, 2015). The approximation to social media communication channels offers a greater possibility to communicate with the consumer/customer. Unlike the unilateral relationship to the consumer/customer in traditional marketing, which intention is to bring the consumer/customer to buy (Meffert, Burmann and Kirchgeorg, 2012), content marketing tempts the user with the offer of free content and communication via media, to strengthen the relationship with the consumer (Pulizzi, 2013.a.). By providing content to the consumer/customer, indirectly promoting the brand/company with content in the foreground, content marketing offers a promotion-based communication method (Keller and Fay, 2012; Pulizzi, 2013.a.). Therefore, content marketing can be seen as communication tool only and so it

classifies as an element of promotion in the marketing mix (4Ps) (Lieb, 2011). How content marketing can be integrated into the promotional mix will be discussed further on.

Unfortunately the popular business press and academic literature provide very little guidance on how to integrate content marketing into the promotional mix or into IMC strategies. However, in order to approach this issue, sources relating to content marketing will be analyzed. On the basis of these, an integration of content marketing in the promotional mix can be achieved.

According to the definition of Giesen (2015), content marketing aims at combining online communication channels as well as non-electronic communication channels with the intention to produce and provide high-quality content. The online communication channels, may be blogs and websites as communication hubs, and social media communication channels as “cohesive, linking spokes”, according to Pulizzi (2013.c.). Social media instruments, according to Mangold and Faulds (2009), have become a major factor which influences various aspects of consumer behaviour including awareness, acquisition of information, opinions, attitudes, purchasing behaviour and post-purchase communication and evaluation. The increasing importance of social media and their great popularity make Social Media Marketing (hereinafter referred to as SMM) an integral part of content marketing (Pulizzi, 2013.c.; .d.). Due to the fact that the SMM communication channels in sum affect and connect all content marketing channels, social media can be taken as a comprehensive content marketing instrument (Pulizzi, 2013.c.). Due to this broad application scope and the increased importance of social media in content marketing, the focus on the classification of SMM in the promotional mix helps to identify the role of content marketing in it (Mangold and Faulds, 2009). According to Mangold and Faulds (2009), SMM is a hybrid element of the promotional mix because it combines characteristics of traditional IMC tools (direct sales communication with consumers/customers) with non-traditional UCG. These non-traditional tools, communicated through a wide range of online social media platforms, allow the consumers/customers to communicate with the marketers but also among each other (Mangold and Faulds, 2009). In this relatively new opportunity of direct and hybrid dialogue options, Kreutzer and Merkle (2008) see benefits for the consumers/customers as well as for the marketers. On the one hand, social media allows consumers/customers to talk to each other, exchange opinions and associated with that, generate content (Pulizzi, 2013.c.). Due to this fact social media is perceived by the consumers as a very trustworthy user-generated source of information when it comes to product and service evaluations in comparison to corporate-sponsored

communication transmitted via the traditional elements of the promotional mix (Mangold and Faulds, 2009). On the other hand marketers have the opportunity to engage in a more personal dialogue with their target audience, through an interactive behaviour on social media platforms. According to O'Brien (2012) marketers can, in providing something valuable (high quality content) to the consumer/customer, build up a relationship them. Additionally social media platforms enable marketer's access to a pool of free individual consumer/customer information (shopping and service preferences, purchase behaviour, etc.), which they receive by listening to and analyzing UCG (Pulizzi, 2013.c.). Because of this increased importance of social media in the business environment, Mangold and Faulds (2009) developed the following new communication paradigm (figure 3) placing SMM on one level with the traditional five instruments (advertising, personal selling, public relations, direct marketing, sales promotion) of the promotional mix. This individual (coined of UCG) additional instrument modifies the traditional communication paradigm, which was also underlined by Gurau (2008) (Mangold and Faulds, 2009). In contrast to the paradigm of Mangold and Faulds (2009), the traditional paradigm concentrates on the coordination of the promotional mix to develop an IMC strategy. When it comes to IMC strategies: content, frequency, timing and medium of communication are defined by the organization in collaboration with its paid agents (advertising agencies, marketing research firms, etc.) (Mangold and Faulds, 2009).

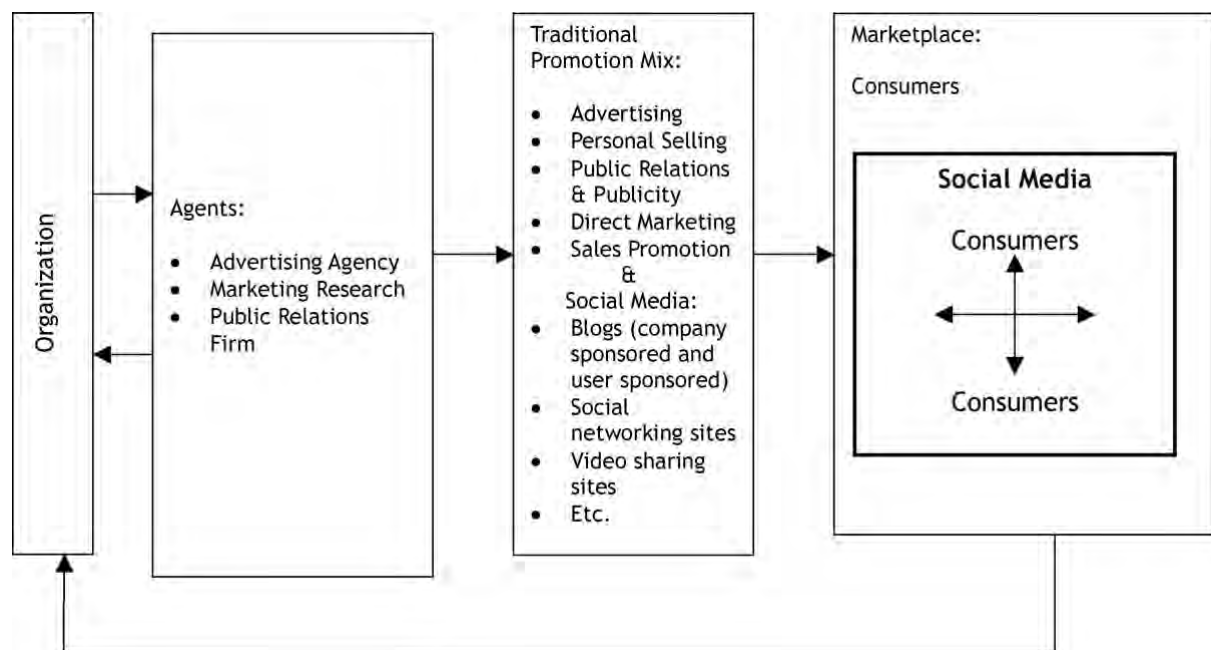


Figure 2.1: The new communication paradigm
Source: Adopted from Mangold and Faulds (2009)

The information flow besides the traditional IMC strategy has generally been confined to face-to-face and word-of-mouth communications among individual consumers/customers. These information flows had minimal impact on the dynamics of the marketplace due to their limited proliferation according to Mangold and Faulds (2009). However, in the era of SMM, managers have to give up control over content, frequency, timing and medium of communication. Considering this change, in the new paradigm of Mangold and Faulds (2009) (Figure 2.1), information about products and services is also generated by consumers/customers in the marketplace. This social media UCG (consumer-to-consumer) is based on experiences of individual consumers/customers but is still channeled through the traditional promotional mix (Mangold and Faulds, 2009). Accordingly, marketers lose a large part of the control they usually have by employing IMC, but in turn they receive a new promotional instrument. It allows marketers to address a bigger target audience.

When it comes to content marketing, this communication paradigm can be used as a basis for the integration of content marketing into the promotional mix. Just as in content marketing the main goal of using social media commercially is to build a long-term relationship with the consumer/customer by offering useful or entertaining content (Scott, 2010). Social media marketing is applied in every other content marketing communication channel and because of that, represents a key element of content marketing (Pulizzi, 2013.c.; Pulizzi and Handley 2015.a.; .b.). Content marketing also employs applications besides social media, but they are mostly connected with SMM in some way. Thus, the term content marketing defines a promotion strategy with a strong focus on a content-rich communication particularly via social media (Pulizzi, 2013.c.). Taking into account the increasing impact of interactions among consumers (UCG) on the development and performance of IMC strategies the following four aspects should be taken into consideration.

Firstly, marketers have to accept that more and more information about their products and services is being communicated by new and unique word-of-mouth communication systems.

Secondly, consumers respond to UCG instantly, influencing all aspects of consumer behaviour such as information acquisition, post-purchase expression, satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Mangold and Faulds, 2009).

Thirdly, consumers increasingly rely on UCG, instead of on the traditional elements of the promotional mix. This broadens the consumers' horizons in a more impartial way and reduc-

es their reliance on advertising as a source of information to guide their purchase decision-making (Mangold and Faulds, 2009).

Finally, marketers have to adopt this change from marketer-dominated marketing to consumer-dominated marketing. This is why today marketers should engage in communication with the consumer/customer through content marketing channels. Listen to them, talk to them and try to influence the discussions to their benefit on internet platforms as well as in real life. In order to provide an all-encompassing understanding of content marketing it is necessary to take a closer look at its communication channels.

2.4. CONTENT MARKETING COMMUNICATION CHANNELS

When it comes to the various communication channels (telephone, radio, television, magazines, etc.), it is the internet that revolutionized the communication world like nothing before (Leiner *et al.*, 1997). The internet allows the use of internet services (e-mail, Telenet, Usenet, file transfer, www, etc.) and lately also increasingly telephony, radio and television (Robison and Crenshaw, 2002; Liu, Wang and Chang, 2013). Due to the ever improving (user-friendly) interface of the internet and all related technologies, the marketplace enable a much greater participation by the consumer (Hu, Lin and Zhang, 2002). One of the noteworthy recent changes in online marketing thinking has been the change from marketer dominance to consumer dominance. More precisely it is the change from push advertising, making the decision for the consumer/customer on what content he or she receives, to pull advertising, where the consumer/customer decides what kind of content he or she wants to receive (Sinha and Foscht, 2006; Rimlinger, 2011). Due to the change from marketer dominance to consumer dominance, customer loyalty is not any longer achieved through singular promotions or offers (Rimlinger, 2011). It may rather be compared to a unilateral relationship, where the marketer has to give something valuable, to be 'present' when it comes to questions, complaints and for service performance, in order to gain customer loyalty (Sinha and Foscht, 2006). As a result of that, online marketers shift their focus from traditional push advertising to highly entertaining and informational values (i.e. the content of a message), a website has the potential to evolve into an information portal, a flyer into a magazine, YouTube advertising into high-quality and high-content videos and commercials into high-end documentaries (O'Brien, 2012).

The internet offers unprecedented opportunities for online marketers to provide high quality content for consumer/customer. How these opportunities are exploited by marketing in detail will be described in the following section. Additionally, non- electronic media and their complementary usage for content marketing will be taken into account.

2.4.1. Websites as a content marketing communication channel

A website, also called internet platform, is a virtual space in the world wide web, where several web pages (files) and other resources are located (Van der Heijden, 2003; Stahlknecht and Hasenkamp, 2006). Websites are usually grouped together and linked by a common navigation. Depending on the desired function, there are various kinds of websites: Personal, commercial, governmental and (non-profit) organizational (Stahlknecht and Hasenkamp, 2006). However, all sites have in common that they offer *content* to the website visitor. Thus, especially with respect to content marketing, the internet offers numerous strategies to communicate content (Hermida and Thurman, 2008; Pulizzi, 2013.c.). As one of the first communication channels on the world wide web, websites symbolize a basis for all subsequent channels. Various communication systems like Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn, Pinterest, Google+ etc. as well as search engines and e-magazines all expand the communication network of a website and also refer the user back to the providers of the websites (Elliott, 2007; Charlesworth, 2009). What are the tactics to create content on websites? How is content created elsewhere in the web? The following section aims at answering these questions.

2.4.2. Online content marketing on websites

An important element of online marketing is to build up a website portraying the company in the desired positive way (Kreutzer, 2014). According to Kreutzer (2014), the basis for a successful and serious commercial internet presence provide the format of a website. One online marketing model is using the company's website as a foundation for further activities. On the one hand, a well designed website providing contact information, customer services, reliable merchandise possibilities and quality content build up loyalty and trust. On the other hand a website provides the opportunity to extend the communication with the consumer/customer through links to other internet platforms (Kreutzer, 2014). According to Kreutzer (2014) a company's website is the backbone of a successful online marketing strategy.

When it comes to marketing with a commercial website, it is important to differentiate between promotional and content-providing marketing (Elliott, 2007). Promotional marketing

can have the following objectives: create awareness, stimulate demand, encourage product trial, identify processes, retain loyal customers, facilitate reseller support, combat competitive promotional efforts and reduce sales fluctuations (Pride *et al.*, 2012). While the main focus in promotional marketing lies in the merchandising of the product/label, content marketing puts the main focus on communicating with the consumer without selling (Pulizzi, 2013.a.). This particular type of communication aims at providing content in any fashion to the consumer. The most common content marketing tactics used on websites are: articles on the main website, e-newsletters, blogs, videos, case studies, infographics and white papers (Contilla, 2013; Pulizzi and Handley, 2015.a.; .b.)

Articles on websites are, by 81% in B2B and by 78% in B2C the most used content marketing strategy on websites (Pulizzi and Handley, 2015.a.; .b.). Therefore, the content of articles on websites has become an important mainstay in website marketing. According to Kuenn (2013), website marketing has changed from just inserting a specific keyword a certain number of times per page (search engine add-word management) to providing well-written, organized, useful, relevant, social-ready (that is most likely to spread in social networks) content. Hence website content, including article content, is no longer written to optimize search engine results, it is written in order to provide value for the website visitors (to reach the aims of content marketing). It aims at fulfilling the customer's needs and interests, in order to build a trusted and emotional connection with the brand/company. This is accomplished by providing highly entertaining or educational content tailored to the target audience (Pulizzi, 2013.b.). The content of the articles varies and the articles of B2B marketers are usually written in a neutral, rather serious style, which shall establish trust among the recipient and foster a positive reputation of the company (Garibian, 2013). Guest authors can intensify this effect. Especially in educational or informational topics, the reader pays more attention to a specialist of the topic at hand, instead of to the opinion of the company, which may be influenced by commercial objectives (Kuenn, 2013). In contrast, B2C marketers aim at increasing the conversation rate (measure of advertising effectiveness analysis; number of transactions/visits) through providing entertaining content, which promotes more dialogue (Garibian, 2013).

In B2B as well as in B2C content marketing, a very popular content marketing approach is the e-newsletter, which is also based on articles (Pulizzi and Handley, 2015.a.; .b.). An e-newsletter is a periodically (based on season, month, etc.) sent message by email that contains tailored information. In contrast to spam mailing, an e-newsletter is usually requested by the recipient (Düweke and Rabsch, 2012). The e-newsletter is designed in a visually ap-

peeling fashion (pictures, graphics, etc.) and provides useful content (articles, useful product information, case studies, white papers, etc.). This content can but is not necessarily product or brand-related. Thus it is the special informative content, which differentiates the e-newsletter from average promotional spam mails (Linn, 2010).

Another content-creating strategy on websites is the so-called blogging. Blogging (a truncation of the expression web logging in colloquial language) is a sort of micro diary or journal in the world wide web. In this publicly accessible web diary, the web logger (blogger) keeps records, minute facts and writes down thoughts (Williams and Jacobs, 2004). There are two types of blogs: private blogs run by private individuals and corporate blogs organized by companies. When it comes to corporate blogs, it has become more and more common to use them as an additional customer-touch-point directly on the main website (Sprague, 2007; Kreutzer and Merkle, 2008). However, a company does not necessarily need a corporate blog to promote own products and services effectively. One of the purposes is to increase attention and brand awareness by blogging, also by being mentioned in other blogs. This causes the so-called “traffic”, which increases the online presence. The idea behind this is, the more visible the company is online, the more it will be perceived and kept in mind by the consumer/customer (Wright and Allgeier, 2006). A corporate blog on the main website is a good medium for exchange on specific issues for the provider as well as for the reader. The medium is used to exchange information, ideas and experiences as well as communicate with the customer on a more personal level. By supplying a non-commercially driven blog, which supports exchange and not sales, a company can build up trust on the consumer/customer side and receive constructive criticism beneficial for the company. According to Cho and Kim (2012) customers are more loyal when they are offered access to the “brain” behind a certain company through the blog. This more personal form of communication is a popular content-producing tactic, employed by 77% in the B2B and 72% in the B2C content marketing area (Pulizzi and Handley, 2015.a.; .b.). Thus a corporate blog is a popular tool to improve the confidence in the brand and the company.

A relatively new but already firmly established trend associated to the proliferation of broadband internet access and flat rates are videos. These are advertising videos on websites and other platforms. Like the classical advertising banner, promotional videos are placed on web pages and offer additional content (Scott, 2013). Online videos can be used to generate traffic or leads on the home website for example and aim at building a reputation, to maintain the image or act as a product presentation and advertising. A few years ago it was technically

simply not possible to play longer videos, thus advertising clips were short. Today broadband internet enables streaming (process of data transmission) hours of video-content on a website without waiting times. The longer the videos are the more complex is their content. Therefore the length of a video is no longer determined by time but by content (Mei *et al.*, 2007). This also implies that, when it comes to the content, there are less limits to creativity. According to the B2B and B2C content marketing reports 2015 (Pulizzi and Handley, 2015.a.; .b.), 76% of the B2B and 74% of the B2C marketers use videos as advertising and communication media. The video medium is playing a specific role for this thesis and the accomplished research thus it will be considered in more detail in chapter four.

Another content-creating communication tool in content marketing are case studies. According to Thomas (2011:513) a case study, comparable with a spectacle and subsequent evaluation are

“analyses of persons, events, decisions, periods, projects, policies, institutions, or other systems that are studied holistically by one or more methods. The case that is the subject of the inquiry will be an instance of a class of phenomena that provides an analytical frame – an object – within which the study is conducted and which the case illuminates and explicates.”

Case studies are particularly popular (71%) in B2B content marketing (Pulizzi and Handley, 2015.a.; .b.). This popularity in B2B content marketing is caused by the high demand of high quality information on specific topics. So, it is the main goal of case studies to promote the customer's confidence in the organization through high quality information (Foster 2012).

Another possibility to present complex content quickly and clearly is using infographics (Miller 2013). The term infographic is coined by the words information and graphics. They are pictures, which present compressed data (ideas, information, instructions, construction plans etc.) by visualizing complex information. This visual storytelling aims at helping the audience to consume complex information at a glance (Lankow, Ritchie and Crooks, 2012). The process of visualizing compressed data into an infographic is divided into the steps: data visualization (data information that has been abstracted into a schematic/graphic form), information design (displaying information effectively) and in information architecture (visualizes the structure design of shared environments)(Smiciklas, 2012). In 2013, this tool was used by 40% in B2B and 38% in B2C content marketing (Pulizzi and Handley, 2013.a.; .b.). Especial-

ly in the B2B case, infographics made up for the largest increase of all content marketing tactics from 33% in 2013 to 40% in 2014 to 60% in 2015 (Pulizzi and Handley, 2015.a.; .b.).

Sixty one per cent of B2B content marketers use white papers – which makes them an already very established strategy (Pulizzi and Handley, 2015.a.). White papers are overviews of services, standards and technology including user descriptions, particular kinds of case studies and market research. White papers aim at being objective and such content can help the reader to support their decisions, offer explanations or solutions to a certain problem (Gabler Wirtschaftslexikon, 2014). Since white papers contain complex and specific content and thus address only a small audience, the usage in B2C content marketing is comparably small (31%)(Pulizzi and Handley, 2015.a.).

Apart from the B2B and B2C Content Marketing Report 2013, a general increase in content provided on websites is to be seen (Pulizzi and Handley, 2015.a.; .b.). This increase is directly related to technical progress. Ten years ago it was almost impossible to access such an amount of information, solutions, suggestions and entertainment by one company (Pulizzi, 2012.a.). Due to the technical progress, the change to a consumer dominated market and the accomplished demand of free and high quality content requires instant and continuous supply from the marketer for successful online marketing. Simultaneously, expectations and demand among consumers for free high quality content is increasing (Handley, 2006; Welfens and Jungmittag, 2013). These expectations seem to have an influence on content marketing strategies. Especially between B2B and B2C content marketing there are differences when it comes to the various consumer/customer demands, preferences and application (Linn, 2013). While B2B business customers are manageable and in most cases share the same interests, B2C marketers face an inscrutable target audience (Linn, 2013). As a consequence B2B marketers attempt to present high quality content in a reputable and informative way. Offering even very complex content enhances the good reputation and promotes trust. Certainly, B2C marketers also want to improve the reputation and promote trust, however, this requires a more entertaining basis because of the inscrutable and fast developing target audience (Linn, 2013). Linn (2013) stipulates that the ever-changing and unclear target audience requires more entertaining content because they have no professional interest in consuming it, as B2B recipients most probably have. Furthermore she concludes that entertaining content can build up an indirect emotional connection with the company, which has the potential to benefit the brand/company. Along with this process, websites are not the

only internet platform that enables a company to communicate content. Content communication channels beyond websites will be examined in detail in the following section.

2.4.3. Online content marketing besides the main website

Due to the technological progress and the associated opportunities to communicate over the internet, websites are no longer the only option for advertising. Besides advertising directly on websites, social media marketing has become a regular feature in online marketing (Flanagan, 2010). However, the website of a company loses none of its relevance despite the existence of the various social media platforms. The website provides reliable information about products, services and possible purchase options. Social media platforms are connected to the website by adding hyperlinks in the form of “buttons” (Kreutzer and Hinz, 2010). In contrast to the reputable content provided on websites, the content on social media platforms has a more entertaining and casual character. So the focus is much more on improving interaction between company and consumer/customer. According to the B2B and B2C content marketing reports 2015 (Pulizzi and Handley, 2015.a.; .b.), social media marketing is the most used content marketing tactic, with 93% in B2C and 92% in B2B. These figures clearly demonstrate that social media marketing indeed plays an important role for today’s content marketing strategies. Therefore, the following will describe social media marketing in terms of producing and providing content in theory and analyze its possibilities and limitations. Due to the complexity of this topic, a more precise picture of the so-called social media will be depicted first.

2.4.3.1. Social media

It is not too long ago that the main characteristic of internet platforms was information rather than interaction (Weinberg, 2014). However, in contrast to websites where users were limited to passively consuming content, today, the so-called web 2.0 enables users to interact with each other in a dialogue. This is made possible through interactive communication platforms, where groups and communities share, create, discuss and modify UCG. The rapid technical progress through which mobile, web-based technologies allow the access to the internet in almost every situation in life, intensifies the UCG volume (Kietzmann *et al.*, 2011). According to Kaplan and Haenlein (2010), social media are a sum of applications that allow the creation and exchange of UCG and interaction between individual users. Very closely related to social media marketing is the social network marketing. Often both terms are used synonymously. However, social network marketing is only one application of social media marketing, social

media marketing also includes the commercial communication through media sharing sites, blogs, microblogs, digital information services, e-magazines, virtual worlds (second life) and valuation portals. Accordingly, social media marketing is the broader term (Weinberg, 2014; Zarrella, 2010). Social media platforms allow interaction, participation in different interest groups, across borders, long distances and language barriers. Everyone who has access to the internet can join and become active in groups they choose, which share their interests, provide information, support or help. By active participation, each group/community member can influence the group identity, build up social relationships around the word and extend the network. Due to the mobile web-based technologies, social media make information travel fast from user to user (WOM), clearly different to formerly official channels of information (TV, newspaper, etc.) (Scott, 2013). So, social media, especially social networks are a relatively new way to satisfy social needs by connecting people.

What does that mean for companies? One aspect for companies is that particularly brands and labels can be means of personal expression that consumers and customers identify with (Broniarczyk and Alba, 1994; Chernatony, McDonald and Wallace, 2010). According to Scheier and Held (2013) the power of a strong brand can be compared with the process of falling in love. In this context the keywords are: brand identification, brand relations and brand personality. When a user likes a brand, they often communicate this within their networks. By being able to communicate an opinion about a company/brand or a specific offer to a wider audience in the internet, the user can exercise power over and exert influence on a company (Kreutzer and Merkle, 2008). Also, social media marketing has a particularly great potential to improve the trust into a company/brand, leading to a stronger emotional bond and loyalty to the company/ brand (Kreutzer and Hinz, 2010). The following paragraph will examine social media marketing strategies aiming to reach this goal.

Social media marketing

According to Flanagan (2010), today's marketing professionals are aware that the most compelling brand relationships are those in which the audience has an emotional reaction. Emotionally keen consumers have the potential to develop into convinced and committed supporters of the company/brand. Especially SMM has the potential and the possibilities to increase the growth and appreciation of the brand with the help of emotional appealing social media communication channels, in a short time segment and immediate global reach.

SMM uses these different social media communication channels to engage in dialogue with potential customers and consumers of a company. Core elements of SMM are: the dialogue with users, authenticity, honesty, transparency in communication and the ability to accept criticism from customers, and respond appropriately (Kreutzer and Hinz, 2010). The community of internet users themselves is in the focus and the main aim is to build a long-term relationship based on loyalty and trust through interaction with consumers and costumers. In contrast to traditional marketing, where the focus lies on sales promotion through commercial advertising, the focus of SMM has no direct commercial intention. The interaction on neutral ground (social media platform) classifies the company on one level with the consumer/customer and thereby creates a starting base for exchange. The network between the social media users can generate considerable WOM effects and help to ensure that content becomes viral (Weinberg, 2014). The marketers have no direct control over the content of these viral dialogues. However, they can influence and steer the content to some degree through their activities within social media. Due to the availability of social media in almost every situation in life, target groups' reaction on content has changed (Kreutzer and Hinz, 2010). Today, by using social media, consumers and customers decide which content about brands or companies they want to receive (Kreutzer, 2014). According to Scott (2010) and Kreutzer (2014) the more transparent, the more authentic a brand presents itself through social media channels, the higher users rate its credibility. Which in turn has the potential to increase the brand's popularity (Scott, 2010; Kreutzer, 2014).

Objectives of social media marketing

When it comes to the objectives of SMM, the main focus lies on building a long-term relationship with the consumer and costumer (Scott, 2010). Social media enable direct contact and innovative dialogue options benefitting both the company and the consumer/customer (Kreutzer and Merkle, 2008). The resulting social brand value can be strengthened through interactive SMM. Today it is not enough to just have a high monetary brand value to form a long-term relationship with the consumers and customers; it has become equally important to achieve a high social brand value (Melo and Galan, 2011; Kreutzer and Hinz, 2010). The development of the marketing strategies in the last 60 years from production, product and sales orientation to service and customer loyalty orientation, increases the importance of needs, demands and opinions of the consumer/customer (Melo and Galan, 2011). The value of a brand is created less and less by the characteristics of a product, but by the role the

brand plays in daily life. Made possible through the technical progress, social media has become a part of people's daily life and thus communities becoming more relevant for the success of a brand (Melo and Galan, 2011). In turn, a high social brand value increases the monetary value of the brand. In sum, the interactions within social media increasingly support: that the brand image is shaped by experiences, the trust into the company is reinforced and long-term relationships are building up (Kreutzer and Hinz, 2010). Another aspect that builds on loyalty and trust is the related inherent goal to improve the image and brand awareness by using SMM. The more a company exchanges content through SMM with consumers/customers and the more consumers/customers communicate with each other via social media about the content, the better known is the company/brand (Weber, 2009). Positive WOM can: arouse interest of other users, attract attention to the brand and enhance the image and brand awareness. In social media, friends and acquaintances, as well as interest groups interact with each other. This environment creates a trusted community for the user. Since these groups are not expected to advertise for something in order to sell it, (because they do not benefit by the sale), the content they share is more likely to be perceived as informative, helpful and reasonable. Therefore, the readiness to consume this content or follow a purchase recommendation is an alleged to be significantly higher than in traditional marketing (Saravanakumar and Sugantha Lamshmi, 2012). Based on these observations Kreutzer (2014) considers social media as the most important online word of mouth tool that enables content to spread quickly (go viral). Thus with the help of social media, content can be spread virally and thereby improve brand and image awareness. Particularly with respect to image awareness, SMM offers companies the opportunity to improve the company's reputation in changing online tactics and content quickly to satisfy the desires and demands of the community (Scott, 2010).

However, as soon as topics or companies/brands evoke emotions on social media platforms, the situation can quickly escalate positively as well as negatively. An appropriate reaction by the company is vital when the reaction is negative. But this also bears the opportunity to early identify and circumvent PR crises and problems. Using SMM allows a direct alignment of PR instruments to a particular target group by directing the measures at particular communities. Thus, due to the quick response times of SMM, another goal, namely the improvement of the reputation of the company can be achieved by using SMM (Peters, 2011). Far beyond the reputation of the firm, today, companies integrate consumers and customers with the help of social media into their processes and the development of content. This integration

and the resulting dialogue between companies and customers, but also between the customers themselves, allows for free business insights about customers, their needs, desires and expectations (Richard, Rohm and Crittenden, 2011). These opportunities increasing indirectly the traffic on the social media platforms and thereby promote the visibility of the company/brand (Weinberg, 2014). Thus the active inclusion and participation of customers, by letting them individually enhance online content on social media platforms, is of great importance in achieving content marketing objectives. Which content marketing instruments are in the focus and how they are applied will be discussed further on.

Online content marketing by using social media marketing strategies

In content marketing as well as in SMM the main focus lies on communication with the consumer/customer in order to build a long-term relationship with them (Pulizzi, 2013.a.; Kietzmann *et al.*, 2011; Scott, 2010). Content marketing and SMM differ from traditional marketing strategies insofar as not the promotion of a specific product is the core objective, but rather the marketing of an image with which the consumer/customer can identify with. The SMM tools, which support content marketing in constructing such reputation, will be discussed in the following.

2.4.3.2. Social networks

Since the beginning of web 2.0 the usage of social networks has been increasing immensely (Stone, 2007). One of the best-known examples with 1.060.627.980 active members is Facebook (Allfacebook.de, 2013). Social networks are online communities of friends and acquaintances or people who share a common interest. These networks of relationships are used by the community members to maintain friendships around the world, exchange data and to discuss or share content with the community (Zavišić and Zavišić, 2011; Boyd and Ellison, 2008). This is enabled by internet platforms on which users log in and create their own individual profiles. These profiles may include only the person's name, however, there is practically no limit to the information provided. It may include user information such as biography, profession, location etc, the status of the user (last time online), preferences, hobbies, photos and profile designs. Apart from the individual profile configuration, social networks provide services beyond a standard messaging system: (instant) online chat messengers, pin board functions and multilateral communication tools (like button, nudge button, etc.) (Weinberg, 2014). Based on these aspects, Kreutzer and Hinz (2010) see the main focus of social networks in connecting people.

When it comes to the commercial use of social networks, these facts enable companies to learn a lot about their target audience by studying the consumers'/customers' social network profiles (Weinberg, 2014). Bolotaeva and Cata (2010) also see opportunities in the commercial use of social networks for helping to find talent, building brand awareness, finding new customers and helping to conduct brand intelligence and market research. How social networks are used commercially in content marketing and how they can produce relevant content will be discussed in the next section.

Social network marketing as a tool of content marketing

Besides direct advertising on websites, today, social network marketing has become a regular feature in online marketing (Boyd and Ellison, 2008; Zavišić and Zavišić, 2011). Social network marketing encompasses all commercial activities in the internet, which use social networks as a communication channel. On the one hand companies can promote their brands/labels/products on their own and in an obvious way, through wish list features and tell-a-friend applications. On the other hand they may make use of the user's trusted community. This means the users serve two major purposes in the commercial use; on the one hand they consume commercial content and on the other hand they create and provide commercial content by sharing and creating additional content (Boyd and Ellison, 2008). Users who indirectly create commercial content are, in majority of the cases, highly engaged consumers who identify with the corporate identity of a company. If this content is believed to be convenient and valuable by other community or network users, it can become viral (Zavišić and Zavišić, 2011). This is very beneficial for marketers, because consumers and customers do not feel that the content, still commercial, is being pushed at them for commercial reasons, it's more referred to them by a friend in a trusted network (Zavišić and Zavišić, 2011). Consequently, the focus lies on the quality of the content and especially on the person who transmitted it. This relatively new kind of online content marketing adds the following options to a company's online marketing strategy (Kabani, 2013; Zavišić and Zavišić, 2011):

- Different communication with the consumer/customer (based on trust)
- Improved WOM online marketing
- Entirely new starting points for market research
- Product optimization, new product development and idea generation

- Customer service
- Enhancement of public relations
- More opportunities for reputation management
- New ways to communicate content

By using these opportunities in online marketing, the following objectives can be reached: product and brand awareness, consumer and customer loyalty and success of new product launches (Waad and Gómez, 2011; Zavišić and Zavišić, 2011; Kreutzer and Hinz, 2010). A company can achieve an increase of product and brand awareness by attracting the social network users to a fan page in the network; in addition to the groups and communities established by the users. As the provider of a fan page and with the associated groups and communities, the companies can lead the communicated content into an advantageous direction (Waad and Gómez, 2011). A fan page with an elaborate profile can provide typical website content (such as articles, e-newsletter, blogs, and videos (as described in chapter four)). However, beyond this, fan pages allow a member or a fan to create their own content (Bernecker and Beilharz, 2012). In social networks, the position of the user in the community, comparable to forums, changes the relationship to the company by putting the consumer/customer on eye level with the company. In contrast to the company's main website, where the company is presented as a serious business partner, on a social network fan page and in the associated groups/communities the company presents itself more as a friend (Bolutaeva and Cata, 2010). This also implies that the content changes from the generally serious advertising character to communicative and entertaining character. In their personal network environment the users do not want to receive spam or newsletters they have not ordered. Their main focus lies on communicating/exchange with friends (Kreutzer and Hinz, 2010). How marketers benefit from social network marketing and what are the main goals is discussed further on.

Goals of content social network marketing

The idea central in content social network marketing is that the company must give something valuable to get something valuable in return (O'Brien, 2012). Instead of confronting the user with non-targeted advertising, the focus is on providing useful content, which may also have no connection to the company/brand. The value returned is often that the social network user associates something positive with the company/brand (Boyd and Ellison, 2008). However, the content can remind the members of the company/brand, evoke emotions and

identification with the company/brand if the content provided is well received. Due to the fact that the user chooses which groups he or she joins and what content/information he or she wants to receive, the content is usually received positively when it matches the group's common interest (Zavišić and Zavišić, 2011). Increasing brand awareness in providing useful content is strongly related to the improvement of consumer and customer loyalty. If the users have the impression that the company's participation in social networks is consistent, honest and that it is providing useful content, this can improve the company's reputation (Zavišić and Zavišić, 2011). This means, providing useful, supportive and entertaining content is suitable to increase consumer's/customer's loyalty and helps building a trusted relationship with the company (Pulizzi, 2013.c.; Zavišić and Zavišić, 2011). Due to this special closeness to the users and the dedicated interest groups, social networks also allow the company a unique analysis of the customers' interests and needs. Listening to the community, giving them a voice and integrating these findings into the development of new products can increase the consumers/customers loyalty, too, and by giving them the feeling of being heard, the success of a new product launch may be enhance (Pulizzi, 2013.c.; Grabs and Bannour, 2014). Accordingly, by incorporating social network marketing as an integral part of online marketing, the relationship between the company and the consumer/customer can be intensified in various ways.

2.4.3.3. Microblogging as a content marketing tool

Microblogging is a relatively new form of social media communication in which users can broadcast about their current status via short messages (140 characters) (Java *et al.*, 2007). Due to a simple user interface and the possibility of exchanging small elements of content such as short sentences, emoticons (representation of a facial expressions), individual images or video links, microblogging serves the purpose of faster exchange of information compared to regular blogging (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2011). This fast exchange is made possible through a push-push-pull function: The user decides which content she or he wants to receive/"follow" and can immediately respond individually to it. Due to the fact that every message reaches every so-called follower of the chosen topic, a message can transform from a simple piece of information to word-of-mouth. The pull-function sets in after one topic has reached absolutely every follower: it may motivate followers to find additional information on that topic (Riemer and Richter, 2010; Kaplan and Haenlein, 2011). With 115 million active users a month the microblog platform Twitter is by far the most popular one (Statistic Brain,

2014). According to Kaplan and Haenlein's research (2011) there are three factors that can explain the tremendous number of users and the extraordinary popularity of microblogging:

The first reason is the idea of ambient awareness. It builds on the curiosity of the human kind on the one hand and on the other hand on the need to communicate. It implies to be up to date. About general matters of interest, but also even about the most trivial matters in other peoples lives. Secondly it is the combination of the push-push-pull communication from originator to followers, between followers and back, which makes microblogging a unique type of social media communication. Thirdly Kaplan and Haenlein (2011:108) emphasize one aspect of microblogging when they write:

"Twitter is like a huge one-way mirror, which allows millions of people to sit on one side and watch the day-to-day lives of a select few who have decided to share their each and every move with the whole world."

However, the platforms serve multiple exchange purposes – as was clearly visible during the Arab Spring, where twitter constitute a very important communications instrument, for example (Lotan *et al.*, 2011) – and are not limited to this aspect.

These factors and their impact on user behavior can also be exploited commercially (Jansen *et al.*, 2009). When it comes to content marketing, microblogging is a great opportunity to listen to the wishes, needs and problems of the user and to reply with rich and compact content. Also, customer service and complaint management processes can be improved through the permanent use of microblogging (Burton and Soboleva, 2011). Based on the rapid flow of communication, the company can response quickly to questions, problems can be resolved through an exchange and content can become viral due to word-of-mouth (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2011). However, while microblogging can promote a positive reputation and lead to a closer relationship to the company, poorly communicated content, ignoring of complaints and negative consumer/costumer comments can also have a devastating impact on the firm's image (Kaplan and Haenlein, 2011). Therefore the tool is not to be underestimated.

2.4.3.4. Media-sharing as a tool of content marketing

Media-sharing platforms allowing users to upload and share content with other platform users. There are two forms of content that can be published on these pages. On the one hand content that was created and published by a company and on the other hand content created and posted by fans of the company (UCG) (Kreutzer and Hinz, 2010). The content created

by the users is especially important for a successful design of SMM, because it promotes their interaction, integrates the user into creative consumer-generated content processes and allows them to share their views about the company (Zarrella, 2010). Apart from the sharing option modern technology promotes a fusion. This means most media-sharing sites provide network functions such as instant messengers, links to other social media providers and even cooperation's between social media providers. Accordingly, media sharing platforms providing beyond the sharing function subject-specific communication. (Kreutzer and Hinz, 2010; Lee and Ma, 2012).

Video platforms offer everyone who has access to the internet the opportunity to present their own creations via video to other users. It is the videos providers' decision that, only a selected group, a community or the entire internet, has access to the video. In turn the group or community can evaluate, forward and react to the video content. Companies can set up their own brand channels, to inform, entertain and advertise with video content (Kreutzer and Hinz, 2010). However, videos do not necessarily have to contain an advertising character. They also discuss problems customers may be confronted with, provide do-it-yourself maintenance advice or just entertain the viewer (Scott, 2013). On the one hand, providing useful content via professional videos to the consumer/customer improves the reputation of the company and builds up trust. On the other hand, providing entertaining content, even without the brand in the foreground, may touch the consumer/customer emotionally and create (an indirect) connection to the brand/company (Scott, 2013).

Another popular sharing trend are photo-platforms. On photo-platforms, members can upload, store, share, comment and evaluate the pictures of others. Most photo-platforms do not allow companies a commercial use. However, companies can set up either groups or profiles, as long as they behave like a normal member of the community itself (Kreutzer and Hinz, 2010). Through photo communities, especially companies belonging to that branch (camera producer, photo software provider etc.) can collect useful user-generated information to improve their products. Conversely those companies can provide useful expert knowhow to the community (Zarrella, 2010).

Another sharing trend are presentation-sharing platforms. Presentation platforms allow users to upload and share presentations with friends or entire communities. Apart from the sharing opportunity, in most cases those platforms provide a network to connect with friends or companies, register for events, participate in contests and vote for them. Due to the fact that

presentations have a teaching effect and contests improve the quality, the communicated content averagely be on a high quality level (Kreutzer and Hinz, 2010). There are several other media-sharing platforms, for example for audio files or software, but in sum, also for commercial purposes, the main aim of media-sharing sites is the same: receiving and providing content (Lee and Ma, 2012).

2.4.3.5. Challenges in online content marketing

The internet, particularly the so-called web 2.0, which allow more interactivity, social interactions and participations, easier search, automatic updates and faster reaction on users questions and needs, have profoundly changed the human experience of using it (Kim, 2009; Correa, Hinsley and De Zuniga, 2010). Access to the internet in almost every situation in life, not least because of the rapid technical progress (mobile technologies included) it is a very close companion for people (Kim, 2009). It helps to find information, buy and sell products, watch movies, TV shows and videos, communicate, search for entertainment and participate in politics (De Zuniga, Puig and Rojas, 2009; Correa, Hinsley and De Zuniga, 2010). In contrast to the past where people went online and sought the anonymity it offered (Correa, Hinsley and De Zuniga, 2010), today most people use the internet to communicate, socialize with people and to expand the circle of friends. Furthermore, the web 2.0 enables every user to generate content and thereby enhance the scope of supplied content immensely (Asur and Huberman, 2010). This means, instead of only retrieving information as was the case in web 1.0, users are now able to create and to consume content (Berthon *et al.*, 2012). The result of this communicative, UCG revolution, made possible by an array of online communication channels, is a fundamental shift in power from the firm (marketer-driven web) toward individuals and communities (user-driven web) (Correa, Hinsley and De Zungia, 2010; Berthon *et al.*, 2012).

According to Correa, Hinsley and De Zungia (2010) this change is initiated and highly influenced by social media, because it includes both, the conduits and the content disseminated through interactions between individuals and organizations (Berthon *et al.*, 2012). This meeting place, the social media platform, offers, on a neutral consumer-friendly basis, potential for commercial communication and use according to Kirtiř and Karahan (2011). In contrast to former online mass media advertising (banners, newsletter, etc.) Kirtiř and Karahan (2011) see in the use of social media a great opportunity to reach the consumer/customer individually and receive their valuable feedback. Thus the task difficulty is no longer, as in the tradi-

tional online marketing, to convince the consumer and persuade to buy as fast as possible, and push him/her to purchase. It is rather about providing something valuable in order to receive something valuable in return (O'Brien, 2012). According to O'Brien (2012) the value returned is that people associate good things with the brand/company. This relatively new form of providing useful or entertaining content already is established in online marketing (Berthon *et al.*, 2012). According to Berthon *et al.* (2012) it is out of the question not to use online content marketing, it is rather the question which channels are suitable and efficient to communicate content. According to the B2B and B2C content marketing reports 2015 (Pulizzi and Handley, 2015.a.; .b.), social media marketing is the most-used content marketing strategy. Thus social media marketing can be seen as a new basis for content marketing through an assortment of individual communication channels, which extend the regular online marketing instruments (Pulizzi, 2013.c.). Furthermore, these social communication channels coming up beyond online content marketing channel, in supporting non-electronic communication channels to stay competitive (Pulizzi, 2013.a.; .c.). How content marketing is applied in non-electronic communication channels and how social media marketing is already integrated into those offline communication channels is discussed further on.

2.4.4. Content marketing in non-electronic communication channels

Non-electronic communication channels are defined as any channel apart from the internet (Löffler, 2014). In the following, the B2B and B2C content marketing reports 2015 (Pulizzi and Handley, 2015.a.; .b.) serves as a reference to describe two of these channels: Events and print Magazines.

Event marketing (including in person events, live communication, event-driven marketing) refers to the targeted purposeful and systematic planning of events (exhibitions, conferences, sales presentations, investor meetings, press conferences, sporting and cultural events) (Drengner, Gaus and Jahn, 2008). The term event marketing is a very wide concept and describes different occasions, like events as a product such as sales promotions or information events (Drengner, Gaus and Jahn, 2008). As a marketing, image-promoting and opinion-promoting instrument, events enable a company to showcase its goals and build a reputation. In event marketing, the classical marketing practices: distribution of samples, product information and freebies, are flanked by shows and performances (Drengner, Gaus and Jahn, 2008). Event marketing addresses (potential) customers very directly and personally and promotes, according to Zarantonello and Schmitt (2013) a memorable, emotional brand

experience. Building on these experiences, an event can cause a deeper and more meaningful brand equity (Zarantonello and Schmitt, 2013). When it comes to content marketing, the focus lies on providing content which purpose it is to create a unique (emotional) experience, to entertain and inform the participant and to consolidate a meaningful brand equity (Nahorniak, 2013). As a below-the-line marketing instrument (not a classical promotion /communication marketing instrument), events are becoming more and more popular due to these opportunities especially for content marketing (Nahorniak, 2013). In the end also social media highly supports the whole life cycle of an event (Pulizzi, 2012.b.): Firstly, in the planning phase of an event, social media provides marketers favourable research conditions to assess which are the interests of communities and groups, which content they like and with what kind of content the marketer can satisfy the largest need. Secondly, the potential of social media to spread content is used to promote the event. Certainly, for the promotion of the event, other communication channels are also important, but according to Pulizzi (2012.b.), the high frequency of sharing makes social media an effective instrument to announce events. Thirdly, after the event, marketers can receive honest feedback on the event by evaluating of social media platforms (Pulizzi, 2012.b.). In sum, using online communication channels and particularly social media to promote events, is a supporting instrument for efficient event marketing. Also, marketers use non-electronic media, especially print media, to build awareness and to entice consumers/customers to interact, by “clicking” and participating online (Kanso and Nelson, 2004). Particularly print magazines are influenced by online communication channels and vice versa (Nyilasy *et al.*, 2011; Mickey, 2014).

A print magazine is a printed composition of articles with a subject-specific focus published in regular intervals – usually weekly or monthly – (Gabler Wirtschaftslexikon, 2014). According to Pulizzi (2010), a print custom magazine is funded, produced and issued by one company with the intention to build trust, a reputation and a relationship with the consumer/customer. In general custom magazines encompasses 28 pages or more, with consistent, highly appealing subject-specific content (Pulizzi, 2010). There are commercially organized and free of charge magazines, which provide content (Gabler Wirtschaftslexikon, 2014). Commercially organized magazines can afford due to the disposal less advertising and highly subject-specific content, thus the main goal is to provide high quality content on a topic. In contrast to that, free magazines, which are mainly funded by advertising or the promoting company, design the content broader in order to appeal to everyone in the target group (Gabler Wirtschaftslexikon, 2014).

When it comes to this non-electronic communication channel in content marketing, so called print custom magazines support the content marketing mix (Pulizzi, 2010). In contrast to internet websites, where the visitor decides within seconds whether the content is appealing to her or him, the average time a reader spends on reading a custom magazine is longer, not least due to the targeted content. Also, many pages contain a type of call to action, by a web address or a barcode that directly connect to a web platform with additional content (Pulizzi 2012.c.). With this linkage to the internet, the provided content of a custom magazine extends to another level of communication and leverages a more content-rich media experience. Particularly the linkages to social media platforms enable interactive communication about the magazine article, the building of groups concerning that topic and the spreading of information and news within hours around the globe (Lee and Ma, 2012). According to Pulizzi (2012.c.), the print channel is experiencing a renaissance and broadens the content marketing horizon by offering a new opportunity: the connection to online communication channels to provide content.

Non-electronic communication channels benefit from the connection to online communication channels and vice versa, as described above. This means that non-electronic content may be influenced by online communication channels and vice versa but still has a non-electronic base. This base enables the marketer, in contrast to the less personal online communication, a more direct and personal contact to the consumer (Löffler, 2014; Pulizzi 2012.c.). Marketers have the opportunity to step into direct contact with visitors of events or readers of custom magazines and benefit from the unique experience of the consumers/customers (Pulizzi 2012.c.; Zarantonello and Schmitt, 2013). Furthermore, the use of online communication channels, which promote and support non-electronic content marketing instruments has increased immensely and has already become an integral part of non-electronic content marketing (Pulizzi, 2013.d.). This means, on the one hand, the challenge of non-electronic content marketing is, to provide consumer/customer with appealing content and on the other hand to adjust it to maintain competitiveness.

2.4.5. Requirements and prospects of content marketing communication channels

The emergence and widespread adoption of electronic media from the 1990s onwards has enabled a continuous rise of opportunities to connect people (Levy, 1999; Solomon, 2012; Mayasari, 2012). This ongoing process of connecting, shaped by the rapid technical progress mainly by the internet, has become an integral part in society and economy (Solomon, 2012;

Mayasari, 2012). Users have instant access to information, networks, databases, communities and marketplaces. These opportunities allows the user to be more demanding, individualistic, involved, independent, better informed and more critical (Solomon, 2012). When it comes to marketing, this movement has a great effect on the communication between consumer and marketers as well as among costumers (Meffert, Burmann and Kirchgeorg, 2012). Smith (2009) perceives a fundamentally shift from marketer-driven web to user-driven web technologies, such as blogs, social networks and video-sharing platforms in the last few years. The sum of these social technologies has promoted a revolution in UCG, which dominates the way people use the internet. Instead of only retrieving information, the internet now offers users enhanced entertainment, communication with marketers and among each other and enables them to become creators of content (Smith 2009). More precisely it is the change from push advertising, where the decision for the consumer/customer on what content he or she receives is taken by the marketer, to pull advertising, where the consumer/customer decides what kind of content he or she wants to receive (Sinha and Foscht, 2006; Rimlinger, 2011). As a result of this, consumers/customers are less responsive to traditional marketing stimuli, less sensitive to marketing cues, while they demand more. (Constantinides, 2006; Keller and Fay, 2012). Accordingly, the marketing complexity for the marketers, to remain competitive, increases proportionally with the increasing individuality of the consumer/customer (Keller and Fay, 2012). This increasing individuality demands a high reputation caused by customer service, customer care and particularly the offer of (free) high quality content beyond a high product quality and the traditional marketing (Keller and Fay, 2012). In order to approach the consumer and to handle this change, marketers have to take this consumer-dominance on board. This can be achieved by a content marketing mix in enhancing the capacity for information, providing useful content and creating value for consumers/customers (O'Brien, 2012; Pulizzi, 2013.a.). Due to the strong influence of social media even on non-electronic content communication channels, they have to become an integral part of the promotional mix.

2.5. CONCLUSION

The goal of this chapter was to define content marketing, present its communication channels and classify it in the marketing context. Content marketing was defined as a promotion strategy, which provides content without the intention to push to purchase, but to build up trust and a long-term relationship with the consumer/customer. This useful and/or entertain-

ing content is communicated through a range of communication channels, all connected to each other through social media channels which also allow the consumer/customer to produce content. When it comes to commercial usage, content marketing is already used in the framework of IMC strategies. There are few publications describing content marketing yet. However, commercial literature and adjacent SMM literature shed light on how content management can be classified in marketing. Content marketing has a strong networking character by its viral nature – this may imply that it could be employed as the coordinating element of all promotional tools in IMC. It is experiencing a heyday due to the widespread use of the internet and the wide range of opportunities for consumer/customers as well as marketers to generate content. The consumers'/customers' interest in valuable content instead of traditional advertising and the change from marketer dominance to consumer dominance increased the complexity of content marketing's application field. Marketers have to listen to the consumers'/customers' needs more than ever before and accept that more information about their products and services circulates by new and unique word-of-mouth communication systems. Accordingly, building up the company's reputation by providing useful or entertaining content to push the UCG into a certain direction has become a marketing challenge. Which are the means of content marketing to do so? One example, sponsoring, which is used to build up reputation and stay on the consumers'/customers' minds will be discussed in chapter three.

3. Chapter Three: Sponsorship

3.1. INTRODUCTION

According to Meenaghan (1995), in marketing there has been a shift in attention away from the physical aspects and functional benefits of products towards their symbolic associations. This means that companies care more about the communicated content and how the public perceives this content, whereas the efforts to present the product/brand have not been intensified (Meenaghan, 1995). Meenaghan (1995) sees four main reactions for this increased emphasis on image in marketing.

The first reaction Meenaghan (1995) mentions is that marketing practitioners increasingly integrate behavioural aspects of consumer decision-making into their marketing strategies to build up the company's reputation. This integration is pushed forward through the change from marketer dominance to consumer dominance (Hu, Lin and Zhang, 2002.). On the one hand it gives the consumer the feeling of being recognized and on the other hand it gives the marketing practitioners the change to listen to the needs and wants of the consumer. Secondly, resulting from the growing affluent society and the associated demand of product quality, the preference with symbolic rather than purely functional aspects of products is increasing. Thirdly the broad offer of relatively homogeneous products, with small differences in quality, increase the importance of the image aspects of the product. Finally, technological innovation is no longer a guarantee for competitive advantages because products become more and more susceptible to rapid imitation (Meenaghan, 1995).

These market requirements change the challenges for marketing practitioners, especially when it comes to promotion. According to Mangold and Faulds (2009) consumers turn away from traditional advertising progressively; demanding more control over their media and immediate access to information. Furthermore the perceptions of a brand are increasingly linked to consumers' experience with the brand (Berry, 2000). According to Walraven, Koning and Bottenburg (2012) and Walraven, Bijmolt and Koning (2014), sponsorship as a reputation-enhancing and experience-enhancing tool, has become increasingly popular among companies that operate in consumer markets. Recently, it also is used more and more by industrial marketing practitioners (Meenaghan, 1998; Smith, 2004). In industrial as well as in consumer markets sponsors aim at attracting popularity by increasing brand/company awareness by supporting sports, arts and other social activities. Using sponsorship to provide consumers with enjoyable and meaningful experience is not a new marketing communi-

cation method. For example Adidas the German sporting goods manufacturer has been supplying the official match ball and clothing for all Fifa world cup matches since 1970 (Fifa, 2014). What is new is that the media environment has changed (Pulizzi, 2014). The competition for attention is increasingly intense in today's accelerated and complex electronic media (Pulizzi, 2014). When it comes to sponsoring in this relatively new environment, there is an emerging trend: content marketing (Pulizzi, 2007). Companies sponsor activities with informative or entertaining content, by following a sponsoring strategy that introduces image-related similarities between product and an event (Pulizzi, 2014). Accordingly sponsorship has become an essential instrument, producing content (Pulizzi, 2014).

To illuminate these market requirements this chapter focuses on sponsorship. How sponsorship is defined, how it is to differentiate from advertising and what types are used commercially is discussed in the first section of this chapter. The second section focuses on the measuring of sponsorship effectiveness and the image creation/transfer caused by sponsorship. Finally the combination of sponsorship and content marketing is examined in more detail.

3.2. DEFINING SPONSORSHIP

According to Walraven, Koning and Bottenburg (2012), one of the most frequently used definitions of sponsorship is Meenaghans (1983:9) definition:

"Sponsorship can be regarded as the provision of assistance either financial or in-kind to an activity by a commercial organization for the purpose of achieving commercial objectives".

With this definition Meenaghan (1983) distinguish between sponsoring and donating, in underlining the commercial character of sponsorship while donations have a purely philanthropic character. Javalgi *et al.* (1994:48) include the basic idea of patronage in their definition:

"Sponsorship is the underwriting of a special event to support corporate objectives by enhancing corporate image, increasing awareness of brands, or directly stimulating sales of products and services. Sponsorship can be individual or joint; the event can be a one-time affair or a continuing series of activities. Sponsorship is distinct from patronage. Patronage is based on charity, an altruistic activity in which the patron holds little expectation of concrete benefit".

By adding the idea of patronage, Javalgi *et al.* (1994) point out that reaching the main goal – increasing the awareness of the brand/company – with sponsorship, differs in so far from advertising that a third party (sponsored individual) is involved in the whole process. Cornwell (1995) presents a recent extension towards the use of sponsorship in the marketing context. Cornwell (1995:15) defines sponsorship-linked marketing as followed:

“the orchestration and implementation of marketing activities for the purpose of building and communicating an association to a sponsorship.”

In accordance with its communication character Bruhn (2012) classifies sponsorship as a promotional instrument in the marketing mix. Nevertheless, in sponsorship the activity that is supported is in the foreground and the sponsor in the background. Because sponsorship is often seen as an ancillary promotion tool, it is difficult to classify it in the promotional mix (Bruhn, 2012).

Sponsorship enables marketing practitioners to create a special category of advertising, allowing them through the supporting mechanism to be part of the event (Kelly *et al.*, 2012). According to Kelly *et al.* (2012), sponsorship-linked marketing is a valuable brand-building platform, creating two special categories of advertisers. On the one hand the official organizer of the event and on the other hand the “ambushers” that have no legitimate link to the event but still use it to promote their brand (Kelly *et al.*, 2012). According to that, integrating sponsorship into the promotional mix by signing a sponsorship contract does not automatically evoke a link between the sponsor and the sponsored object in the consumers’ mind. Due to this reason Kelly *et al.* (2012) and Cornwell (1995) see a necessity in the combination of marketing and sponsorship activities to enjoy the full advantage of sponsorship.

3.3. ADVANTAGES OF SPONSORSHIP

Sponsorship has become an important marketing instrument (Bennett, 1999; Kelly *et al.*, 2012), which enables marketing practitioners to achieve favourable publicity for its brands through the support of an activity that is not directly linked to the company’s normal business (Bennett, 1999). Supporting an activity/event of high interest, gives the marketing practitioners the possibility to address a broad and random target audience. In contrast to traditional advertising, where the target audience is clearly defined and the promotion itself is in the foreground, sponsorship works the other way around. The activity/event is in the foreground and the brand/company (sponsor) is perceived only indirectly (Cliffe and Motion, 2005).

However, activities/events enable the marketing practitioners to communicate indirectly to a much broader audience than in traditional advertising and due to that have become an important promotional communication channel (Bennett, 1999; Kelly *et al.*, 2012).

According to Meenaghan (2001) the main aim of sponsorship is to create a positive brand experience and resulting of that an emotional preference for the brand/company, which are both triggered by the indirect perceived connection between brand and activity. These positive emotions can create brand awareness, develop brand image, demonstrate product offerings, leverage the brand internally, create brand loyalty, increase the financial value and brand personality (Meenaghan, 2001; Cornwell, Roy and Steinard, 2001). While companies engage in sponsorship for a variety of reasons, the main objectives for sponsorship have psychological roots. According to Mazodier and Merunka (2012) Cornwell and Maignan (1998), Gwinner (1997), Marshall and Cook (1992), Crowley (1991), Meenaghan (1991.a.) and Meerabeau *et al.* (1991) the two most common psychological reasons to engage in sponsorship are: 1. to increase brand awareness and 2. to establish, strengthen or change the brand image. Further reasons may include the motivation of employees and improving the relationship with suppliers and service provider (Erikson and Kushner, 1999). These perceptions and the importance of sponsorship in marketing can also be supported by the following surveys.

According to Kovalesski (2011) the International Events Group (hereinafter referred to as IEG) which is a sponsorship consulting and research firm, created an internationally accepted standard for determining the fair market value of sponsorship and partnerships, is a reliable source when it comes to the economic assessment of sponsorship. According to the annual IEG Sponsorship Report 2013 (IEG, 2013), the total growth of global sponsorship spending in 2013 is predicted to be around 4.2% with 53.3\$. In comparison to that the expenses for traditional advertising are expected to increase by only 2.6% in 2013 (IEG, 2013). In terms of these facts and numbers, the report concludes that sponsorship has become a very important instrument in marketing. A major challenge for effective sponsoring is to raise awareness, attract support and loyalty for brands in a complex environment that is difficult to cover for traditional promotion communication channels (IEG, 2013). This growing body of knowledge in sponsorship on the scientific as well as on the practical economic side leads to an ascertainment in sponsorship objectives (Grohs and Reisinger, 2014). Furthermore, by supporting an activity sponsors can create goodwill toward the sponsor and avoid to be suspected of obvious commercial intentions (Quester and Thompson, 2001; Gwinner, 1997). Taking advantages of these opportunities, the image of the sponsored event can be trans-

ferred to the sponsor and increase the reputation of the brand/company. When it comes to sponsorship, the main goal of marketing practitioners is the improvement of the corporate and brand image. Thus, academically as well as economically, sponsorship is an approved form of promotion. How sponsorship differs from advertising and how it is integrated into the promotional mix will be discussed further on.

3.4. DIFFERENTIATING SPONSORSHIP

In marketing literature, sponsorship is noted as a powerful attitude-forming (Farrelly, Quester and Burton, 2006) and attention-promoting technique (Rosenberg and Siegel, 2001). According to Javalgi *et al.* (1994), sponsorship has become an increasingly visible element in the marketing communication mix. Commercial sponsorship enables marketing practitioners to offer effective product exposure, to target specific populations including groups that are difficult to reach through more traditional forms of advertising. Furthermore, by supporting highly visible and popular activities, sponsorship enables the marketing practitioners to extend the publicity for their brand/company (Rosenberg and Siegel, 2001; Mazodier and Merunka, 2012). Even though sponsorship is according to Javalgi *et al.* (1994) and Rosenberg and Siegel (2001) an accepted promotion communication tool. However, in the marketing mix sponsorship is closely related to advertising, while it isn't specified as an individual element. This is most probably due to the fact that sponsorship without advertising is less likely to have a considerable effect (Koschler and Merz, 1995). This makes a clear distinction from advertising and a classification in the promotional mix difficult.

Walraven, Koning and Bottenburg (2012) consider sponsorship and advertising as complementary elements in the promotional mix, due to the fact that both have the same main goal – to evoke target groups –. Bigné (1997) also sees the basis of sponsorship in promotion. According to him sponsorship may be related to other promotional communication channels such as advertising, sales promotions and public relations, but in fact it has become such a complex promotion tool that it has to be considered in its own right (Bigné 1997). Javalgi *et al.* (1994) see the fundamental difference between sponsorship and advertising in the addition of a third party into a promotional sponsorship strategy. They point out the sponsor's lack of control over media produced by the sponsored individual (Javalgi *et al.*, 1994). Bigné (1997) concludes that sponsorship is not advertising or sales promotion, nor public relations, but is closely connected with all the above from a conceptual and practical point of view. According to him, sponsorship is categorized in the same promotional area (promotional mix)

as traditional advertising tools, while practically sponsorship is only effective in combination with other communication tools of the promotional mix (Bigné 1997).

As an example many authors, Walraven, Koning and Bottenburg (2012), Kotler *et al.* (2010), Walliser (2003), Meenaghan (2001), McDonald (1991) and Meenaghan (1991.a.) distinguish three differences between sponsorship and advertising:

Firstly advertising and sponsorship differ when it comes to message content and tone of voice (Meenaghan, 1991.a.; Walliser, 2003). Advertising messages are more direct and can be more easily controlled due to the character of traditional advertising. In contrast to that sponsorship is more risky for the sponsor than advertising because a third party (sponsored party) is involved, which cannot be completely controlled (Walliser, 2003).

Secondly, the response of the audience to advertising is different compared with the response to sponsorship. When it comes to the audience reaction to advertising, the direct confrontation with the product/company and their awareness of being targeted leads to a more vital response (Kotler *et al.*, 2010). In contrast to this, in sponsorship the sponsored activity is in the main focus. The company that is sponsoring the activity is only recognized indirectly as a supporter (sponsor) of it and potentially not recognized at all (McDonald, 1991; Meenaghan, 1991.a.). However, due to the fact that sponsorship has become an integral instrument in marketing and is a very commonly used instrument in the sports and the event sector, the audience (consumer) is aware of the fact that sponsorship also has a commercial function (Walraven, Koning and Bottenburg, 2012; Meenaghan and Shipley, 1999).

Finally, Meenaghan (2001) sees unique potential in the opportunity for brands/companies to push forward a brand experience that is exclusively attainable through sponsorship activities. Sponsorship enables two ways of directing the audience's attention to the label/company that cannot be reached by advertising (Parker, 1991): Firstly, sponsorship can trigger an indirect, but close emotional connection with the sponsor, by supporting activities consumers are interested in. Secondly sponsorship enables the marketing practitioners to reach several target groups at a time by addressing everybody who is part of the activity or watches it (Parker, 1991). Underlining these facts, Hastings (1984) noted that sponsorship and advertising differ in objectives and evaluation techniques because of the unique characteristics of sponsorship. According to these arguments, sponsorship clearly differs from traditional advertising and enables different ways to communicate with consumers/customers compared to traditional advertising. This different way to advertise, has not traditionally been a marketing tool

due to its philanthropic origins (Gilbert 1988), has become an integral application in today's marketing mix (Mazodier and Merunka, 2012). According to Keller (2003) the increase in sponsorship activities are attributable to the understanding that developing a brand through associations with an event can improve the reputation, trust and even an identification with the brand. Further Keller (2003) argues that these goals can be reached more effectively with sponsorship than with traditional marketing communications tools, such as advertising. Accordingly, sponsorship and advertising are to be distinguished from each other. Furthermore Keller (2003), Mazodier and Merunka (2012) and McAlister *et al.* (2012) show that sponsorship has become an important individual tool in the promotional mix. In doing so they are pointing out the great importance of sponsorship in today's marketing and show that sponsorship is a permanent feature in the promotional mix. How sponsorship fits into the organizing framework of the IMC is discussed further on.

3.5. COORDINATION AND INTEGRATION

Sponsorship is a promotional mix element with which a company offers an individual, an organization or a group support to exert an activity. In return, the company benefits from this supporting association by creating a reputation, a global image and consumer awareness of the firm's products or services (Meenaghan, 1991.b.). When it comes to the integration into the promotional mix the following aspects has to be taken into account.

According to Cornwell and Maignan (1998), commercial sponsorship activities are more effectively coordinated by IMC. The combination with other marketing communication and promotion activities enables sponsorship to reach out to a larger target audience and increase the promotional effectiveness (Cornwell and Maignan, 1998). As a result, various areas within the company might set priorities for sponsorship depending on the sponsorship objectives (Meenaghan, 1991.b.). According to Thjomoe, Olsen and Bronn (2002), the marketing department might be concentrating on sponsorships, linked to a product/ brand with a specific target audience whereas the public relation department might concentrate on sponsorship activities that are linked to corporate brand building. This means especially for larger companies that several departments are responsible for different sponsorship programmes with different goals and targets (Thjomoe, Olsen and Bronn 2002). Beside these segmentations of sponsorship activities, Cornwell and Maignan (1998) stress the importance of the integration of other communication activities including advertising and promotions, to fulfil the single sponsorship goals and marketing goals. According to these facts sponsorship has

become a serious promotion tool, which unfolds its benefits in combination with other promotional tools coordinated by IMC. On the basis of these findings, the next two sections discuss the different types of commercial sponsorship.

3.6. TYPES OF COMMERCIAL SPONSORSHIP

According to Meffert, Burmann and Kirchgeorg (2012), sponsorship can be structured in sponsorship-divisions and sponsorship-forms. They distinguish between sport-sponsoring, media-sponsoring, cultural-sponsoring, social-sponsoring, and environmental-sponsoring. Within these divisions, individuals, groups, events and whole organisations can be promoted. In the following the most important commercial divisions are discussed.

3.6.1. Sport Sponsorship

According to Levin *et al.* (2013), marketing communication vehicles such as advertising, sponsorship and promotions have become ubiquitous in sports. Especially sport sponsorship has been permanently on the rise. The International Events Group (IEG) projected a 6% increase of spending in sport sponsorship in North America from 13.01\$ billion in 2012 to 13.79\$ billion in 2013. European and Asian Pacific sponsorship spending is projected to be around 14.5\$ billion and 12.6\$ billion in 2013 respectively, with similar ratios committed to sports sponsorship (IEG, 2013). The consumers'/customers' high interest in sports and the general acceptance of sponsorship enabled by the positive image transfer are the basis for effective commercial use (Levin *et al.*, 2013). Thus, supporting sport activities in any shape or form has become a popular instrument in the promotional mix (Jakobs, 2009). The most popular types in sport sponsorship are competitive event sponsoring, club sponsoring, team sponsoring and athlete sponsoring (Faganel and Bratina, 2013).

Sponsoring a competitive sports event as a main sponsor, like Ford, Heineken, Mastercard, Gazprom, PlayStation, Unicredit and HTC Corporation the soccer UEFA Champions League 2014, increase the chance to building up a connection between sponsor and event (Jakobs, 2009). The main sponsors of events are officially mentioned and own the rights for advertising before during and after the event (Jakobs, 2009). The most common and popular advertising techniques for big sporting events are TV advertisements, touchline advertising and promotions/representations on the playing field (Jakobs, 2009). Being a main sponsor is expensive and these sponsors expect high sponsorship responses and set high goals to distinguish themselves from lower tier sponsors (Lagae, 2005; Faganel and Bratina, 2013). The

main sponsor fondly hopes to be able to use this higher status to build up a reputation and a positive association between the event and the brand/company (Faganel and Bratina, 2013).

Club sponsoring focuses on the support of a selected sport club. It aims at intensifying the relationship between club, company/brand and fans. It is beneficial for the whole club to be supported financially (Jakobs, 2009). The classical club sponsoring methods are: tricot sponsoring and touchline advertising. Apart from these classical methods, loudspeaker announcements, VIP rooms and VIP boxes, promotions/representations on the playing field before and during the games, autograph sessions and poster/placard promotions can also improve the connection to the brand/company (Lagae, 2005; Jakobs, 2009). With tricot sponsoring as the main sponsoring activity, team sponsoring only concentrates on the support of the team and not the whole club. However indirectly the club benefits also from this type of sponsoring but for the sponsor it is less expensive (Jakobs, 2009).

When it comes to athlete sponsoring, almost every professional athlete has an advertising contract with a manufacturer for -in most cases- sports equipment. This interactive product placement makes the athlete a manufacture's representative who promotes the logo, brand or company (Jakobs, 2009). A certain level of name recognition, good reputation and popularity of the athlete is a fundamental requirement for effective athlete sponsoring according to Jakobs (2009). In sum, sport sponsorship has become an important marketing instrument that differs from the traditional promotional instruments and opens individual opportunities to build up a relationship between brand/company and consumer/customer. Beside sport sponsorship, the sponsorship by supporting media communication channels has become, due to the technological progress also a popular and important sponsorship practice.

3.6.2. Media Sponsorship

According to Jakobs (2009), media sponsorship represents one of the latest types of sponsoring by supporting media communication channels (print, TV, cinema, radio and internet). This special form of advertising finances the transmission or reporting of sponsored activities as well as broadcasting TV shows and series. In media sponsoring the sponsor is represented by their logo or a corresponding text hint (such as "is presented by") (Bruhn, 2010). Programme sponsoring, sponsoring of public viewing and product placements are very popular media sponsorship applications (Bruhn, 2010). According to Bruhn (2010) the internet has also become an important communication platform for media sponsoring. When it comes to internet/online sponsorship, Bruhn (2010) underlines the importance of a clear distinction

from other types of online advertising. Internet sponsorship is often mistakenly confounded with other online advertising applications. Bruhn (2010) sees the main reason for this problem in the fast pace of the internet. The German multimedia association (2000) defines internet sponsorship as followed:

Internet sponsoring and all of its services is way marked through a long-term partnership between sponsors and their receivers (operator of an internet platform). The services of both partners are clearly defined. The sponsor provides money, goods and services and receives access to an internet platform that offers options to advertise via images, sound, text or moving images (videos) as well as the right to use them commercially in return.

In contrast to this theoretical definition, which enables a clear distinction between internet sponsoring and advertising by underlining the importance of a long-term partnership, the fast pace of the internet complicates a distinction in real life practice. In order to solve these demarcation difficulties, Bruhn (2010) presents six types of internet sponsorship. He distinguishes between: “brand flooding”, content sponsoring, content-providing, application providing, sponsoring of interactive elements and event sponsoring.

Bruhn (2010) defines “brand flooding” as an all-encompassing internet sponsoring approach. This means that the whole web presence of the sponsorship receiver, mention the sponsor. Primarily the sponsor is indicated through a clearly visible company logo on every web page. Verbalisations like “sponsored by” or “powered by” are often attached to the logo to emphasize the sponsor (Bruhn, 2010).

In contrast to this all-encompassing internet sponsoring approach, the term content sponsoring refers to the support of individual columns (content) on a web presence. This enables the sponsor to concentrate only on the content important for the sponsor on the one hand and on the other hand to support content on several web pages simultaneously (Bruhn, 2010)

When it comes to content providing sponsorship the actual content of the web presence stems from the sponsor itself. Due to the fact that in this case the sponsor and the web page owner are one and the same, the company logo and verbalisations (“sponsored by”) are coordinated (Bruhn, 2010). This of sponsorship serves as an additional support of useful or entertaining information. In contrast to “brand flooding” or content sponsoring where the sponsor is perceived as a supporter of the content, in content providing sponsorship the sponsor is perceived more as a provider than a sponsor (Bruhn, 2010). This affinity of sponsored content and the website, as well as the supply of neutral content offers great potential

to transfer entrepreneurial skills and adopt a positive image care. Furthermore, the integration of content in a special interest page enables to address specific target groups and consequently may increase their interest. Providing that, it builds up trust and increases the reputation of the sponsor (Bruhn, 2010).

Both content providing and application providing sponsorship have a giving function in internet sponsorship. Consistent with the basic idea of content marketing, to give something valuable to get something valuable back, application providing sponsorship produces Java Applets or screensaver for example, equipped with the company logo and verbalisations (Bruhn, 2010). Internet platforms provide these applications as give away (gimmicks) and distribute them.

In contrast to these digital applications, the sponsoring of interactive elements focuses on financing expert chatrooms, discussion forums or other interactive elements in the internet that allow internet users to generate content (Bruhn, 2010). According to Bruhn (2010) particularly interactive communication elements enable marketing practitioners, due to the unconventional way of communication, to step into closer connection with specific target groups.

Another way to increase indirect commercial presence is online event sponsoring. This way of online sponsorship provides entertaining content by creating a special online presentation platform, which supports the broadcasting/reporting of sponsored sport-, cultural-, and other events (Bruhn, 2010). In this type of sponsorship the broadcasting of the event and the content that is broadcasted is in the foreground and the sponsor is just perceived in the background (O'Brien, 2012).

3.6.3. Other types of sponsorship

In contrast to sports and media sponsorship, cultural-, social- and environmental sponsorship arouse a lower public interest and thus make up a smaller share of sponsorship investments (IEG, 2013). According to Olkkonen and Tuominen (2005) cultural sponsorship is less attractive for marketing practitioners because it is less lucrative due to a relative inaccessibility and a lack of appeal to the mass. Hence, cultural sponsoring is more used to pursue image objectives, rather than market objectives (Quester, 1997; Quester and Thompson 2001; Bruhn, 2010). Instead of the clear commercial character in sports sponsorship in the social and environmental area the supporting character is in the foreground (Bruhn, 2012). These sponsorship types include financial or material assistance towards charitable institutions, training

centres and projects. However, social and environmental sponsoring enables companies to enhance their corporate social responsibility activities (ecological, socio-political and social responsibility) and communicate a caring image to the public (Bruhn 2010). The last paragraphs mentioned activities for improving the company's image very often. But how can image be measured? Measurable objectives play an important role in business and measuring the impact of image promotion is no exception. How the impact and success of sponsorship can be measured is discussed in the next section.

3.7. MEASURING SPONSORSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

According to Cornwell and Maignan (1998), the IMC approach has become one of the primary way of thinking for connecting a firm's promotional efforts. This gives rise to the question of whether the IMC framework can also be employed to consider the effectiveness of sponsorship? In accordance with Schultz and Kitchen (1997) Swain (2004) considers this a challenge, because the IMC does not foresee to measure individual methods. Thus the main challenge is to separate promotional sponsorship effects from other promotional activities, the so-called "spill over effects". When it comes to sponsorship the following measurement parameters are common and avoid spill over effects: quantifying media average, exposure of the sponsor and the close to exposure associated awareness of the sponsor (Meenaghan, McLoughlin and McCormack, 2013). According to Thjomoe, Olsen and Bronn (2002) and Meenaghan, McLoughlin and McCormack (2013) the most commonly reported methodology is to measure the quantity of exposure the sponsoring brand achieves through media coverage of the event. However, the measurement of exposure will not provide comprehensive evidence of sponsorship's effect on the audience's level of brand awareness or image. So it is rather awareness (as a consequence of exposure) that symbolises the first critical stage of the consumer decision process (Meenaghan, McLoughlin and McCormack 2013). Awareness is divided in: brand awareness, event awareness and awareness of the brand as sponsor. Meenaghan, McLoughlin and McCormack (2013) distinguish prompted and unprompted brand awareness, also known as brand recognition and brand recall performance. According to Meenaghan McLoughlin and McCormack (2013), brand recognition as well as sponsor recognition refers to the ability of the consumers to differentiate the brand/sponsor they have previously been exposed to. Brand recall or sponsorship recall is a deeper recognition of the brand/sponsor (Meenaghan, McLoughlin and McCormack, 2013). More specifically it is the consumer's ability to identify and dedicate the brand/sponsor in their memory. Therefore,

sponsorship awareness is a first line indicator to measure sponsorship effectiveness (Meenaghan, McLoughlin and McCormack. (2013). In this matter, Johar, Pham and Wakefield (2006) and Wakefield and Bennett (2010) see in sponsorship awareness a necessary basis for high-level processing. Common high-level processing of sponsorship awareness involves image creation and image transfer and the creation of positive attitude towards the event/sponsor (Speed and Thompson, 2000). Also important, is to be able to measure sponsorship effects over long term (Faganel and Bratina (2013). According to Parker (1991) the spontaneous awareness of an event and sponsor can be very low whereas the long-term effects could turn out stronger after a recall association has developed. Quester and Farrelly (1998) conclude that emotions, exposure/awareness, recall, involvement and loyalty are the main factors affecting the evaluation of sponsorship. How an event image can be created especially with the help of emotions and how this image can be transferred to the brand is discussed further on.

3.8. IMAGE CREATION AND IMAGE TRANSFER

Brand image has been defined by Keller (1993:3) as:

“perceptions about a brand as reflected by the brand associations held in memory.”

This definition indicates that the favourability, uniqueness and strength of the linkages a consumer holds in his/her memory structure regarding the brand, are crucial to a brand's success. These linkages, or in Keller's terminology (1993), brand associations, are developed from a variety of sources including product use, informational sources (e.g., advertising, packaging, word-of-mouth) and other entities. Especially the associations with other entities are of great importance when it comes to image creation and transfer according to Keller (1993). Some associations linked to the event may become linked to the sponsoring brand (Keller, 1993). The framework presented in Figure 3.1, adapted from Gwinner (1997) on the basis of McCracken's celebrity endorsement model (1989), suggests that the event image is formed by a number of external and internal factors.

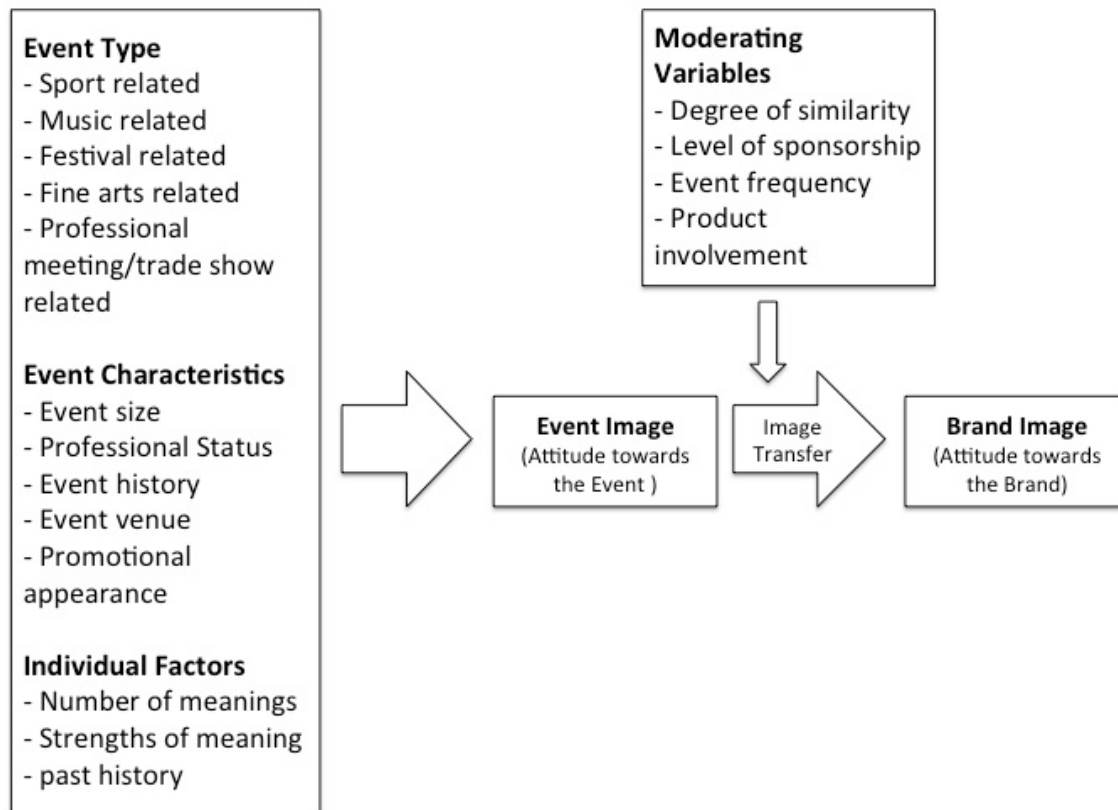


Figure 3.1: Image creation and image transfer in event sponsorship

Source: Adapted from Gwinner (1997)

The event's image is the result of particular composed market segments. The main determinants of event image are event type, characteristics and individual factors. When it comes to event types influencing the event image, Gwinner (1997) underlines the following aspects: a direct event experience and/or indirect information (WOM, advertising, etc.) about an event type affects the event image. Further specific activities experienced or observed during an event can influence the event image, too. Apart from these directly influencing aspects, the number and type of other spectators/participants of the event can also (indirectly) affect the event image. According to Gwinner (1997), the number of participants has an impact on crowding, event availability and wait times, which vice versa may affect the event image negative or positive. Furthermore, the "type of participant", which means the demographic and psychographic characteristics of others attending the event will also affect the event image negatively or positively.

Concerning an event, the following aspects influence the event image essentially (Gwinner, 1997): First of all, the size of the event plays an important role in combination with status of the protagonists (professional or amateur) and the tradition/history associated with the event.

Additionally, the event venue and the type and amount of promotion affect the event image. Particularly the association of event with sponsor, where the sponsor may be perceived as making an event possible for the consumer (Chew, 1992), increases the credibility of the promotional message (McDonald, 1991).

In addition to these general factors which determine the image of an event, Gwinner (1997) underlines that individual factors should also be taken into account. He says, an event may have different images for different individuals (Gwinner, 1997). This argumentation is based on the notion that a large number of the general factors influence the event image and these factors are all interpreted individually by the audience. According to Gwinner (1997), the following three individual factors may influence event image: the number of images an individual associates with an event, the strength of the particular image and the past history a participant/spectator has with a specific event. Also, research has discovered that for example each sport has its own individual image and marketing practitioners can positively benefit from this individual image transfer (Parker, 1991).

When it comes to the actual image transfer, Gwinner (1997) segmented the moderating variables presented in figure 1 in two sections. He distinguishes between variables that potentially influence the strength of the image transfer and variables that may have an impact on the brand attitude. Considering attitude towards the brand and attitude towards the event as components to brand image and event image, Gwinner (1997) introduces these attitude components as essential parts of each “image box” in Figure 3.1.

The variables, which influence the strength of the image transfer, are: degree of similarity, level of sponsorship and event frequency. A product can have either functional or image-related similarity with an event. When it comes to functional similarity, the product of the sponsor is actually used by participants during the event (Gwinner, 1997). An example for this type is the tyre manufacturer Bridgestone in Formula One racing sports. Apart from the sponsoring activity of Bridgestone, all Formula One teams used Bridgestone tyres from 2007 to 2010 (Bridgestone, 2010). When it comes to image-related similarity, the image of the event is related to the image of the brand. The energy drink manufacturer Red Bull makes use of this type of image transfer by sponsoring several extreme sport events. Sports, particularly extreme sports and energy drinks seem to go together naturally (O'Brien, 2012). By sponsoring these events, energy drink manufacturer are able to suggest that performance in sports is connected to energy drinks – that high-performers in sports make use of these

drinks and that others who want to follow may also take advantage of the drink. The image transfer may go even further, suggesting that whenever high performance is necessary, in sport or elsewhere, an energy drink could be a good option. In this case the similarity comes from the identification with extreme sports and the extreme sport orientation of both the energy drink consumer and the brand (O'Brien, 2012). The level of sponsorship describes how deeply involved the sponsor is in the sponsoring activity. Here, Gwinner (1997) points out that the more exclusive the sponsorship, the greater the strength of the image transfer between event and brand. Thus exclusive sponsorship or a dominant position as a main sponsor is valuable. According to Gwinner (1997), the following aspects should be considered when it comes to the variables, which influence the strength of the image transfer. Firstly the degree of similarity (image-based or functional) between event and sponsoring brand, secondly the level of sponsorship and thirdly the frequency of the event.

As mentioned above and demonstrated in Figure 3.1, the attitude towards an event is an essential component of event image and vice versa, the attitude towards a brand is a component of brand image. To underline the correlation between event image and attitude towards the brand, Gwinner (1997) quotes advertising research by Petty, Cacioppo and Schumann (1983). This research focuses on attitude formation by product involvement in connection with celebrity status. They argue that the level of product involvement determines the relationship between event image and attitude towards the brand (Petty, Cacioppo and Schumann, 1983 in: Gwinner, 1997). Gwinner (1997) infers that brand attitudes with low product involvement will be strongly influenced by the event image and vice versa brand attitudes with high product involvement will be weakly influenced by the event image.

It can be concluded that sponsorship may create an individual sponsorship image that can be transferred on the brand/company. How consumers perceive the sponsor (sponsor-event fit) and how their attitudes towards the sponsor can be measured is discussed further on.

3.9. DETERMINANTS OF SPORT SPONSORSHIP RESPONSE

Academic literature offers little help on which event to support, what response to expect and how to interpret/use the customers' perceptions of the sponsorship (Speed and Thompson, 2000). For the most popular sponsorship type in marketing, sports sponsoring (IEG, 2013), this lack is surprising. Due to that, this section focuses in detail on the determinants of sport sponsorship response. In order to shed light in this specific area, Speed and Thompson (2000) rely on the classical conditioning research. On this basis, they created a conceptual

framework to measure sponsorship response. They suggest that the response to particular sport sponsorship is influenced by: Attitudes towards the event, attitudes toward the sponsor and perception of congruence between sponsor and event. The following Figure 3.2 (also already shown in Figure 1.1 but display here again to facilitate ease of reading) displays their idea of sport sponsorship response by exposure.

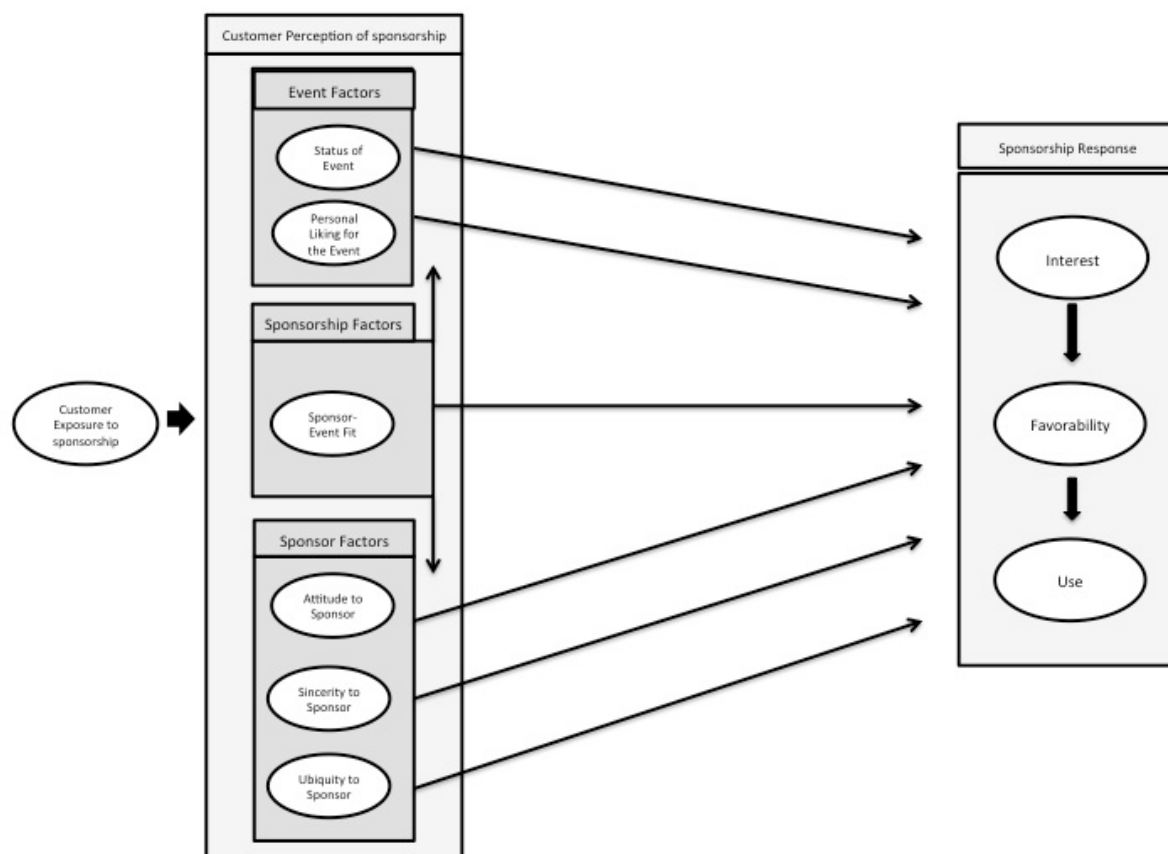


Figure 3.2: Conceptual framework: Sponsorship response

Source: Adopted from Speed and Thompson (2000)

According to figure 3.2, the following sub items of the customer's perception of sponsorship lead to sponsorship response. When it comes to event factors (attitude towards the event), Speed and Thompson (2000) distinguish between the individual appreciation of the event and the perceived event status. Individual appreciation of the event is perceived by the participants directly and may improve the sponsorship response if the sponsor selects events that are popular among their target group. The perceived status of the sponsored event is received from the individual participants indirectly. The perceived status may be high without any personal preference for the event (Speed and Thompson, 2000). The Olympics for example create a lot of opportunities for sponsors to show themselves and are advantageous due to the high status the public attributes to the event.

When it comes to the sponsor factors (attitude towards the sponsor) Speed and Thompson (2000) classify an overall attitude toward the sponsor, perceived sincerity of the sponsor and perceived ubiquity of the sponsor. Experimental as well as survey-based sponsorship research underlines how important the factor of overall attitude towards the sponsor is: Sponsors who already have a favourable image receive a more positive response to their sponsorships than those who do not (Javalgi *et al.*, 1994; Stipp and Schiavone, 1996). When it comes to perceived sincerity of the sponsor, Armstrong (1987) and D'Astous and Bitz (1995) highlight that sponsors who are perceived to be sincere in their sponsorship and motivated by philanthropy will achieve a higher response than sponsors who are perceived as purely motivated by commercial considerations. Speed and Thompson (2000) classify the perception of frequency and selectivity of a company's sponsorship activity under the term perceived ubiquity. In this case they conclude that a high involvement of a company in several sponsorships (high ubiquity) has a negative influence on sport sponsorship response. When it comes to sponsor-event fit, the level of fit (perception of congruence) between the sponsoring company and the sponsored event have a direct impact on the sponsorship response (Speed and Thompson, 2000). As shown in figure 2, the sponsor-event fit influences the customer's perception of sponsorship in having impact on the event factors and the sponsor factors. Speed and Thompson (2000) suggest that an increase of the level of fit between sponsor and event will improve the response to the sponsorship, especially when there is a positive attitude towards the sponsor.

By applying this conceptual framework, Speed and Thompson (2000) were able to prove that the response to sports sponsorship is influenced by the sponsor-event fit, influencing attitudes towards the event and attitudes toward the sponsor. They classify sponsorship as an important marketing tool, along with source effects, store atmospherics, brand extension and brand alliances, which establish an association between brand/company and an event (Speed and Thompson, 2000). Speed and Thompson (2000) conclude that demonstrating fit and sincerity has become a key element in triggering emotions that establish a positive association between brand/company and event, supporting a successful commercial sponsorship. How today's marketing uses an indirect association evoked by sponsorship as a content supplier will be discussed further on.

3.10. THE CONNECTION BETWEEN SPONSORSHIP AND CONTENT MARKETING

Sponsorship has become a popular tool used in different ways and in many commercial situations (Speed and Thompson, 2000). Today's commercial sponsorship environment has developed into a complex marketing construct (Walraven, Bijmolt, and Koning, 2014). More precisely, sponsors do not want to be perceived indirectly as a supporter only anymore, they want to become a direct/perceived part of the event. According to Fahy, Farrelly and Quester (2004), the main reason for this change is that sponsorship activities have advanced from short-term into long-term strategic marketing instruments. Sponsorship has become a long-term investment, requiring detailed planning to achieve awareness and sponsor-event fit. The purpose is to convince the target audience that the sponsor is sincere and favourably to gain the goodwill of the audience (Crimmins and Horn, 1996; Amis, Slack and Berrett, 1999). That is why today's commercial sponsorship environment has changed from just supporting an event to delivering value to the customer and vice versa getting something valuable back (O'Brien, 2012; Zorrilla, 2014). The approach of delivering something valuable – in the case of sponsorship it is event content – to get something valuable back, namely an association of brand/company and event, is similar to the basic idea of content marketing. According to the definition in chapter 2, content marketing also focuses on offering something valuable to the consumer/customer to get something valuable back. Furthermore, it aims at a long-term relationship with the consumer/customer built on trust (sincerity) and preference. How these two promotion strategies are working together is illustrated further on.

3.10.1. The combination of sponsorship and content marketing

According to Zorrilla (2014), the sponsorship environment has extended the philanthropic character to delivering value to the customer instead of just supporting an activity. The opportunity to offer additional content with the help of sponsorship is an interface to content marketing (Zorrilla, 2014). Despite the massive growth in sponsorship activities of all types, there is yet little research about sponsorship in content marketing in the following. The following section presents the current findings available.

According to Pulizzi (2014), an event offers great potential to produce content and as a consequence promote the goals of content marketing. More specifically, the additional content may increase the perceived level of sponsor-event fit and brand/company awareness. Furthermore, the additional content strengthens trust of the company. This implies that sponsorship operates as an additional content-providing tool, increasing the level of association be-

tween event and brand/company especially through sport sponsorship (Nahorniak, 2013). In order to achieve this benefit it is particularly important for content marketing that the content is found, consumed and shared (Zorrilla, 2014). According to O'Brien (2012) and Zorrilla (2014), the integration of sponsorship activities in content marketing provides opportunities for companies to increase the number of people that consume and share the content. How content marketing is making use of sponsorship, which opportunities sponsorship unfolds and how it may influence the response to the brand/company is discussed further on.

3.10.2. The use of sponsorship in content marketing

The reasons to use sponsorship in content marketing are similar to the reasons of using sponsorship in traditional marketing (Pulizzi, 2014). Traditional sponsorship allows marketing practitioners to reach out to a broader and specific target audience that cannot be reached with traditional advertising (Parker, 1991). When it comes to sponsorship, today's main goal of marketing practitioners is the corporate and brand image improvement through a supporting activity. Here the variety of supporting activities is boundless, comprising sponsorship activities like charity sponsorship, educational sponsorship and sport sponsorship (Schnittka, 2011; Tomczak *et al.*, 2008). Due to the philanthropic character, the sponsored event is in the foreground and the image of the event may be passed on to on the sponsor (brand/company)(Gwinner 1997). According to Pulizzi (2014) the giving generous character (providing something valuable) of content marketing in combination with sponsorship – support/host an event not to advertise but rather to provide something valuable – intensify the image transfer on the brand/company. According to the B2B and B2C Content Marketing Reports 2015 (Pulizzi and Handley, 2015.a.; .b.), supporting/hosting an event (Pulizzi, 2014) and broadcasting videos with sponsorship content (O'Brien, 2012) are among the top 6 of most used content marketing tools. Thus the use of sponsorship has become a popular application in content marketing. In the following the use of event sponsorship and videos in content marketing will be discussed in more detail.

According to Zarantonello and Schmitt (2013) events address (potential) customers personally, in promoting a memorable, emotional brand experience. According to Nahorniak (2013) an event is a powerful content marketing punch. He agrees with Meenaghan (1983), Parker (1991), Gwinner (1997), Reilly (2000) and Zarantonello and Schmitt (2013) that participants who directly experience an event have a closer relationship to the sponsor (brand/company) than people confronted with traditional advertising. Building on these experiences, an event

can cause a deeper and more meaningful brand equity (Zarantonello and Schmitt, 2013). Accordingly events are an opportunity to connect the online content marketing strategy to offline, in-person interactions particularly for content marketing (Nahorniak, 2013). The combination of online content marketing strategies and sponsorship strategies (offline content) has to be balanced well, because they strongly influence each other (Nahorniak, 2013). In more detail Nahorniak (2013) underlines the importance of giving the event a prominent place online and vice versa giving online applications the opportunity to produce content about/related to the event constantly (Nahorniak, 2013). An interactive and appealing online promotion before and during the event may increase the number of participants. Furthermore, a reappraisal after the event by providing informative and entertaining online content (photos of the event, information to the event and when the next event will be hosted) may increase the consumer-generated content and particularly feedback on the one hand and on the other hand the number of participants for the next event (Pulizzi, 2012.b.). In sum, using online communication channels and particularly social media in combination with events may strengthen the response to event marketing.

Made possible through the technical progress to stream videos in almost every situation (Solomon, 2012; Mayasari, 2012), a new sponsorship strategy has appeared (O'Brien). This strategy makes use of broadcasting videos with sponsorship content. As a combination of the following three components: social media, sponsorship and video, this strategy combines three of the top six content marketing tools in one (Pulizzi and Handley, 2015.a.; .b.). This outstanding combination and the status for content marketing require an own chapter.

3.11. CONCLUSION

The objective of this chapter was to define sponsorship, present its main types and illustrate its connection to content marketing. Sponsorship was defined as financial support to an activity, usually by a commercial organisation for the purpose of achieving commercial objectives. The most common commercial reasons to engage in sponsorship are to increase brand awareness on the one hand and on the other hand to establish, strengthen or change the brand image. Sponsorship has become an important element of marketing, not least because of the possibility to reach an audience that cannot be reached with traditional communication activities. In detail, this means that sponsorship can lead to increased awareness, brand building and propensity to purchase in a different form than advertising. In contrast to traditional advertising, where the product is in the foreground (perceived directly) in the case

of sponsorship the sponsored activity is in the foreground and the sponsor remains in the background (perceived indirectly). Accordingly it is the image transfer, the association between brand/company and event that are the main triggers for brand awareness and improvement of the image of commercial sponsorship. One of the most popular commercial types is sport sponsorship of any kind. In this specific type of sponsorship the marketing practitioners have the opportunity to address a broad target audience on the one hand and on the other hand to achieve an image transfer from the event on the brand/company.

The last decade has seen significant changes in both business and society. One of these changes has been the scale of innovation in, and the rapid adoption of new media (Meenaghan, McLoughlin and McCormack, 2013). The development of social media especially and its widespread daily use have enormous implications for marketing. Digital communication also broadened the range of sponsorship applications. The new communication channels enable a more open strategy, the provision of informative or entertaining content besides traditional commercial sponsorship. Instead of just supporting an activity, marketing practitioners aim at delivering valuable content to the customer additionally. The two main reasons for this are, to intensify the sponsorship goals on the one hand and on the other hand to give consumers and customers reasons to talk (word-of-mouth) about the content and thereby generate additional content. An effective and popular combination of sponsorship and content marketing tools is the broadcasting of videos with sponsorship content. The benefits of this relatively new combination of these two promotion instruments will be discussed in chapter 4.

4. Chapter Four: Online Video Marketing

4.1. INTRODUCTION

In the past, commercial videos have been broadcasted exclusively on TV. This means that production and consumption of videos were limited to only one channel (Broxton *et al.*, 2013). This has changed radically due to the technical progress, which took place the last decade. More precisely, the emergence of online video sharing sites and the option to share videos via social media have changed the consumers' as well as the marketing practitioners' behaviour (Broxton *et al.*, 2013). Online video sharing sites (video hosting services) like Youtube, Netflix, Vimeo enable marketing practitioners as well as consumers to broadcast short videos without any restrictions for quality or format (Broxton *et al.*, 2013). Resulting from this rapid development of online and mobile broadcasting possibilities, watching video online has become part of the western lifestyle according to Luke (2013). The Visual Networking Index (hereinafter referred to as VNI), an evaluation and forecast of the American networking equipment manufacturer Cisco System Inc. underlines the statement that watching videos online has become an important application in western society. The evaluation predicts a 13% increase of online IP video traffic from 2013 (66%) to up to 79% in 2018 (Cisco VNI, 2014). These figures show that watching videos online is already very popular. The huge volume of videos available creates a large choice for consumers. This choice implies a need to decide what to watch and marketing practitioners are confronted with the challenge to turn the attention to their production (Goh, Heng and Lin, 2013). As a result of this large choice, decision problems, consumers turn away from traditional internet advertising (Mangold and Faulds, 2009). Hence consumers are more likely to watch videos that are distributed via word-of-mouth across social networks, (mobile) instant messengers, blogs and emails. Consumer-generated content as an alternative to marketer-generated content (advertising/promotion) has become popular for internet users (Mangold and Faulds, 2009; Goh, Heng and Lin, 2013). With a trend as prevalent as this one, marketing practitioners already noticed the importance of the commercial use of videos and jumped on this train. How online video marketing influences consumers and what role content marketing plays particularly in combination with sport sponsorship, will be discussed in this chapter.

4.2. DEFINING ONLINE VIDEO MARKETING

Online video marketing (or web video marketing) is a specialized form of video marketing. As an online media-sharing application in social media, Bruhn (2012) allocates online video

marketing to the promotional area of the marketing mix. It enables marketing practitioners to communicate different messages (PR, marketing, sale, etc.) via video content (Schulz, 2013). The internet is the main distribution channel. In detail, this means videos are uploaded on a suitable platform (video-sharing, community, company websites) with targeted content (advertising-, informative-, useful-, or entertaining character) to reach a certain target audience (Scott, 2013). Online video marketing has the potential to increase the number of website visitors and the time visitors spend on the website. Furthermore online video marketing is used to: support brand management and public relations, introduce new brands/products, increase product sales, strengthen the consumers/customers loyalty and to improve search engine positions (Schulz, 2013). How marketing practitioners making use of online video marketing, which groups are targeted and how they react on the relatively new marketing medium is described further on.

4.2.1. Application and potential target audiences

At the beginning of the online video era, the biggest concern was how innovative video material can be created. Due to the technological progress this has changed. Today the technical possibilities are almost limitless. What is more problematic is the strategic positioning in the media (Bscheid *et al.*, 2009). According to Bscheid *et al.* (2009) the decision whether online media advertisements (display-advertising, text-advertising, social media-advertising, etc.) or online video advertisements are employed, is already made in an early stage of marketing planning. Bscheid *et al.* (2009) underline four key points of advantages of online video marketing. Firstly, they see great potential in online video marketing as an alternative, cost efficient and individual marketing solution. Especially for companies that cannot afford expensive TV advertisements. The internet enables marketing practitioners to provide video content more cost-effectively, since the production is less complex compared to TV ads (Bscheid *et al.*, 2009). In contrast to TV advertisements, which aim at pushing the sales messages to the consumer/customer, the internet medium allows the consumers/customers to choose to which content they want to expose themselves. This creates a pull-function of online video advertisements. It allows marketing practitioners to focus on a specific target audience, which facilitates the decision which content a video advertisement should contain (Agrawal, 1996). Secondly, online video marketing approaches a relatively young audience (Bscheid *et al.*, 2009). One reason for this is the rapid technical progress of the last decade. Online video marketing requires a certain amount of internet know-how, that is more common among the

younger consumer generation that grew up with internet (Blank and Dutton, 2013). Thirdly, also supporting the second key point, online video marketing is popular for its special delivery of content (Bscheid *et al.*, 2009): In contrast to TV advertisements promoting the product/service, online video advertisements have many more opportunities to communicate content. The reason for this is on the one hand that today online videos have become limitless in size (data volume and quality) and length (minutes). On the other hand, the more specific the target audience is, the more specific the content can be (Bscheid *et al.*, 2009). Fourthly, while Bscheid *et al.* (2009) described online video product description only as a trend in 2009, today video product descriptions have become essential, especially on mail-order company websites (Oberhofer 2010). Beyond this trend, marketing practitioners also make use of videos to communicate supportive/informative content. In this case they produce videos that help to maintain, repair or use a product. They primarily aim at helping the consumer/customer. Thereby, the videos help to build trust in the respective company (Oberhofer, 2010). Which video marketing methods marketing practitioners' use will be described hereinafter.

4.2.2. Online video marketing methods

In terms of the three basic objectives of promotion: present information to the consumer, increase demand and differentiate a product (Kotler *et al.*, 2010), online video marketing offers diverse methods to fulfill these objectives (Oberhofer, 2010). Oberhofer (2010) distinguishes between the following methods: image video, product demonstration, support video, viral video and recruiting video.

The intention of an image video is to strengthen the company's brand. The main focus lies on creating emotional closeness to the company and communicating the values of its corporate identity. According to Scott (2013), commercial online videos especially image videos, distinguish from other promotional methods by triggering emotions. This is often done by storytelling. Consequently, the content of an image video differs from the traditional advertising function and focuses on building trust and a positive image of the brand/company.

Less emotion and more product information is offered to the customer by visualization of product descriptions. The visual description and explanation provide the customer with practical advice about the product and a better understanding of the good. In addition to the usual written product description, a video demonstration offers the customer a more extensive im-

pression. Particularly for online sale, video product demonstrations gain more and more importance as an additional sale helper (Oberhofer, 2010).

Very popular post-sale video applications are support videos. A support video explains technical issues or provides information on the maintenance of a product. In a support video the consumer or user learns, how to solve a problem or how to maintain his or her product. In contrast to video product demonstrations, which are mainly used by the customer in pre-purchase situations, this type of video has an affirmative effect on the customers even after the purchase. The supportive character gives the consumer a feeling of security and improves the feeling of having bought the right product. Accordingly, the additional service content of a supportive video may strengthen the product/brand and promote customer loyalty (Oberhofer, 2010).

A viral video, equaling electronic word-of-mouth advertising, is a video that becomes widespread because it is shared by users. According to Eckler and Bolls (2011), a viral video (emotional and catchy content) has the potential to combine complex/intense motivational and emotional sharing processes. Here, the consumer/customer is an essential part of the strategy by sharing/spreading/forwarding the video in their network. The content does not necessarily have to contain an obvious commercial message, the crucial element is the entertaining factor, which makes people want to share. More precisely, marketing practitioners use surprising, funny or emotionally upsetting content in order to incite consumers/customers to share the video content via their social/mobile media.

The aim of a recruiting video is to win new employees for the company. It is used to strengthen the image of the company by showing, for example: employees at work, employees describing the work situation and an explanation of the daily business routine. Beyond giving potential new employees an insight into how the company works, the displayed transparency of these videos may also build trust in consumers/customers.

Many authors (Wallsten (2010), Eckler and Bolls (2011), Hsieh, Hsieh and Tang (2012) and Broxton *et al.* (2013) agree that these types of videos are an important tool in online marketing. The next section will describe in detail how marketing practitioners use engaging eWOM to promote the recipients' forwarding intentions and to make it become viral.

4.2.2.1. Viral video marketing

In marketing, particularly in online video marketing, the rapid technological progress of the internet has increased the opportunities for marketing practitioners as well as for customers (Hsieh, Hsieh and Tang, 2012). By implementing an online video marketing strategy into an existing content delivery chain, marketing practitioners can reach an additional audience, which is exclusively reachable via video content. More precisely, the continuous improvement of the internet connection enables marketing practitioners to broaden their marketing methods on the one hand and on the other hand allows customers to consume and use social media to communicate, share and generate content. Online communities and social media have a vast influence on consumers' behaviour in the internet (Liu-Thompkins, 2012). Particularly social media messages spread fast among social media users and skip national boundaries constantly (Botha and Reyneke, 2013). Due to this increased use of social media, the customer-to-customer communication develops from traditional WOM to an advanced computer-based form: eWOM (Golan and Zaidner, 2008). In eWOM marketing practitioners stimulate, with the help of online promotion channels, conversations about the brand/company in order to promote it (Golan and Zaidner, 2008). According to Hsieh, Hsieh and Tang (2012), today one of the most up coming online promotion channel to stimulate conversations in the internet concerning the brand/company and to enable eWOM, is viral video marketing.

Viral marketing relates to buzz marketing, which hypes a message/brand/company with the help and cooperation from individual consumers (Liu-Thompkins, 2012). It focuses on consumer WOM instead of on mass media advertising (Bampo *et al.*, 2008). The benefits are clear: lower costs, higher credibility, faster diffusion and a more precise target audience compared to traditional advertising. Successful viral marketing means that marketing practitioners will only succeed when they are able to turn recipients into a marketing force. Thus, the success of viral marketing comprises two perspectives, on the one hand the recipient perspective and on the other hand the message perspective (Huang, Lin and Lin, 2009). When it comes to turning recipients into a marketing force, marketing practitioners have little influence on the anonymous, unknown consumer during this phase. This means that marketing practitioners have to focus on the actual starting (trigger) point of viral marketing – the message content – which they can control (Hinz *et al.*, 2011).

Due to high-speed network bandwidths which enable high frequency data exchange, the rousing impact of videos and their popularity, online videos are a promising vehicle to deliver

an elaborated message content that can turn viral. Marketing practitioners offer videos through video-sharing websites and trust that the video – due to its informing or entertaining content – will turn viral (Lian, 2011). However, apart from the promising spreading effect, this kind of online video marketing still critically relies on recipients' forwarding behaviour (Chiu *et al.*, 2007). Thus, it is also essential in viral video marketing that the different factors, which trigger consumers' decisions to forward the online video, are investigated (Hsieh, Hsieh and Tang, 2012).

In order to point out the most important activities that turn recipients into a viral marketing force, Hsieh, Hsieh and Tang (2012) apply Lasswell's (1948) classical communication model. They follow Lasswell's (1948) theory by classifying trigger to forward videos into the following four dimensions: source, content, channel and receiver (Hsieh, Hsieh and Tang, 2012). When it comes to the source dimension, Hsieh, Hsieh and Tang (2012) underline the importance of the perceivable intention of the video. Naturally recipients are more willing to forward a message when the source is credible. Thus, a reliable source recipients trust in will motivate/incite them to forward the content, that is to say the video. The content dimension refers to the message that is communicated to the recipients (Hsieh, Hsieh and Tang, 2012). The content of viral videos varies from pure advertising content like TV advertisements to entertaining short movies with no connection to the actual advertising idea (Mei *et al.*, 2007). Emotional content can increase the chances of dissemination and therefore the success of viral marketing (Dobele *et al.*, 2007). On this basis, Hsieh, Hsieh and Tang (2012) underline that emotion, particularly humor as an additional positive trigger, can influence the attractiveness of online video content. The channel is the medium used to communicate the message content. Particularly in viral marketing the medium video has become a popular online data medium due to its specified communication formats. This is mainly due to how the medium video presents information on different levels, all of which might influence the recipients' feelings. The receiver dimension refers to the individual characteristics of each recipient. According to Hsieh, Hsieh and Tang (2012), this dimension is less important because a target audience should be determined before going to the channel dimensions.

The combination of online video marketing and viral marketing has turned into a popular addition to traditional online video marketing reaching a broad and random target audience. The content with which online videos as well as viral videos are filled in order to attract the internet audience is discussed further on.

4.3. DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ONLINE VIDEO VARIETIES

According to Kallinikos and Mariátegui (2011), the last decade has seen the internet transform from a communication tool to a complex media ecosystem. The creation and delivery of digital content has become a popular process in media production and distribution (Kallinikos and Mariátegui, 2011). More precisely, the increasing integration of UCG into marketing tactics and the individual consumption habits moving away from fixed broadcasting schedules, has extended the process of media production. Therefore the presentation of content in ways that enable it to be easily viewed (player format etc.), accessed (provider, etc.), consumed and reacted to (consumer-generated content etc.) by the users has become very important (Kallinikos and Mariátegui, 2011). According to Bscheid *et al.* (2009) whether commercial or non-commercial content, consumers prefer to be entertained. Informing or even educational content is not as popular as entertaining content (Bscheid *et al.*, 2009). When it comes to the commercial presentation of video content, traditional online advertising videos and content focused videos need to be distinguished (Schulz, 2013; Bscheid *et al.*, 2009). How marketing practitioners make use of these two video strategies and why the use of content marketing especially in video marketing grows in popularity is discussed in the next sections.

4.3.1. Traditional online advertising videos

The term online video advertising describes the broadcasting of a sales video in the internet (Schulz, 2013). Online advertising videos enable marketing practitioners to promote a specific emotional sales/brand message through different online video marketing methods and player formats. This message appears integrated into website contexts similar to TV advertisements. In most cases, this message is either copied directly from the commercials on television or produced separately for internet use only. Marketing campaigns are increasingly structured in a way that the recipient or potential customers will come into contact with the message via traditional ways (TV, radio, etc.) combined with the internet and vice versa. However, online advertising videos enable the user to receive additional information about the brand/product without changing the medium (Bscheid *et al.*, 2009). Similar to the content of an online advertising banner, the message content of a commercial online video is clearly referable to the advertising company/source (Schulz, 2013). According to Bscheid *et al.* (2009), online advertising videos do not disturb the internet users as much as TV advertisements disrupt TV viewers. More precisely, it is the special placement of online advertising videos, which enables marketing practitioners to address a smaller and selected target audi-

ence. A possible explanation for this observation could be that the content of the video advertisement is related to the content of the website the consumer is visiting and hence meets at least generally the interest of the consumer (Bscheid *et al.*, 2009). Furthermore compared to TV advertisements, the user receives more control over the videos by skipping-options and player-options. The benefits of these options are that users do not get irritated by the advert because they had to watch it too often and leads them into the believe that they have the control over advertisement (Bscheid *et al.*, 2009). When it comes to the inclusion of video advertising into a website Bscheid *et al.* (2009) distinguish between linear and not linear online video advertisements. Due to the fact that both video applications start automatically, without the user having to activate them, both are classified as commercial streaming videos. Thus, commercial streaming videos exclusively appear in combination with the video content the user is looking for. In contrast to the linear video advertisements the not linear video advertisements are playing parallel to the actual website content. Non-linear videos pop up in front of the actual website video content and can be closed by the user directly. Whereas the linear video advertisements set in before, in the middle, or after the requested video by completely replacing it (Bscheid *et al.*, 2009). According to Bscheid *et al.* (2009), the commercial use of advertising videos can increase brand awareness, recall and purchase intention. Beside this, video advertisements incite users to communicate about the advertising and thereby generate additional content.

Furthermore the effects of online video advertisements can be improved by applying online video marketing methods and/or combining them with other online advertising forms (Bscheid *et al.*, 2009). Particularly video advertisement marketing practitioners try to broaden the target audience by designing entertaining and appealing content in order to push the dissemination forward. Procter and Gamble Co. for example, a multinational consumer goods company successfully changed the image of Old Spice grooming products by producing an entertaining video advertisement series that became viral (Oberhofer, 2010). Also, the combination of video advertisement with other online marketing applications (web banners, pop ups, etc.) can support the video content recall. The combination of online promotion tools shows the dedication and effort put into the marketing and though may improve the trust in and reputation of the brand/company (Bscheid *et al.*, 2009). Even more trust can be achieved by giving the consumer/customer something entertaining and/or informative instead of pushing him/her to purchase. How marketing practitioners make use of video content with the advertising message in the background is discussed further on.

4.3.2. Online video content marketing

Commercial online video content marketing is used in practice and have already become an important component in online marketing (Giraudie, 2014). According to Giraudie (2014), there is no content on the web today, which has the same viral potential as videos. Particularly videos with the content instead of advertising in the foreground lead to trust and motivate users to pass them on. There are consulting websites, guides and books on video content marketing, used by a lot of companies, which wish to extend their traditional internet marketing. They explain how to apply this marketing type in an internet promotion environment. Unfortunately all these sources concentrate on the practical application whereas little is known about the theoretical theory. This is the reason why there is no definition explaining in detail what content video marketing really is. In order to clarify this lack of knowledge and to illustrate the importance of this promotion vehicle a definition will be carved out. It combines the content marketing definition in chapter 2 and the book "Online Video Marketing" from Bscheid *et al.* (2009). Online video content marketing can be defined as followed:

Content video marketing extends content marketing, and results from technological progress. By use of entertaining and/or informative video content, marketing practitioners want to arouse the consumers/customers interest and to reach the audience on an emotional level. In contrast to traditional video marketing, where the advertising message is in the foreground, in content video marketing the advertising message is in the background and the communicated content is in the foreground (O'Brien, 2012; Löffler, 2014).

Just as in content marketing: offer something valuable to the consumer/customer, in this case video content (entertaining and/or informative) in order to build trust and improve the reputation of the company/brand; this is also the basis of video content marketing (O'Brien, 2012; Ciampa, 2013). In return appealing video content incites consumers/customers to disseminate the content via word-of-mouth or even generate additional content in form of comments, discussions and even self-produced videos (Ciampa, 2013). Accordingly online content video performance has developed into a complex promotion tool, which results in much more than just views (Ciampa, 2013). Particularly in online marketing, visual content increasingly helps messages/content to break through the online advertising clutter, to promote products/brands from competitors and improve the company's reputation (Frey, 2014). Videos with entertaining and/or informative content can create a certain closeness, relationship or even identification with the product/brand in less than a few minutes, something which is usually only achieved through prolonged advertising campaigns (Giraudie, 2014). However,

content marketing videos also only develop their full impact in combination with other marketing applications. According to Ciampa (2013) the most important connection for effective video content marketing programmes is the interaction/interlocking of video platform, social media and website. The reason for this is that consumers/customers are more likely to engage with, embed, share and comment on videos with content rather than with traditional advertising videos or other online marketing applications (Ciampa, 2013). Löffler (2014) explained this preference with the appealing/extraordinary content offered to the consumer/customer. Instead of communicating advertising messages (summer sales, new products, etc.) as in traditional advertising videos, content marketing videos focus on emotionality by interesting, narrative, authentic content. Thus a content-rich and purposeful video, connected with a tailored online marketing campaign can guide consumer/customer through the sales funnel and enhance conversation on an extraordinary way (Löffler, 2014; Litt, 2014). When it comes to the content of the videos a trend can be noticed. Content video marketing practitioners promote around and about the product, but the promotion is never correlated to the product itself (O'Brien, 2012). The reason for this trend, which strategy is behind this behaviour and what benefits video content marketing has compared to traditional video advertising is discussed further on.

4.3.2.1. Strategy and benefits of online video content marketing

Internet users are more and more at the mercy of advertising – confronted particularly with display advertising (Frame advertisements, Pop-ups, Floating advertisements, etc.) everywhere. Thus the tolerance of the internet users to follow/view an advert has decreased, which means more pressure on online marketing practitioners to create successful posts. According to Bscheid *et al.* (2009) online advertising videos do not disturb the internet users as much as display advertising. Due to the rapid technological as well as video marketing progress, online video marketing has become a regular and popular feature in online marketing. The current high acceptance of online video marketing will probably decrease as soon the boom phase ended and the proliferation has increased (Bscheid *et al.*, 2009).

However this young form of advertising still benefits from the novelty effect. This effect is expected to cease with the continuous growth of online video marketing (Bscheid *et al.*, 2009). Bscheid *et al.* (2009) claim that even if the novelty effect decreases, the advantages of online video marketing compared to other online marketing applications will still be valid. Online video marketing enables marketing practitioners to arouse emotions and broadcast a

creative message on a unique way due to the extraordinary combination of text, sound and moving image.

Here a relatively new trend to trigger emotions and broadcast a creative message can be noticed. Instead of delivering the promotion object/content in the first place, marketing practitioners concentrate on delivering entertaining and/or informative content (O'Brien, 2012). Walker (2013) underlines this fact by describing the use of entertaining and/or informative content of a video as the ultimately key ingredient for success. According to O'Brien (2012) this relatively new trend can be justified by the fact that internet users/potential customers are more and more choosy when it comes to commercial online content. Marketing practitioners adapt to this change and promote around and about the product/brand, in order to avoid the direct promotion of the product/brand (O'Brien, 2012). With this strategy they want to make sure that the consumers/customers do not feel misled by manipulative advertising and aim at improving a trustful transparency. According to Walker (2013) the following five communication tactics can build up trust (also indirectly), arouse interest and incite a viewer to share the video.

One tactic to make contact with the users/potential customers is to produce controversial video content. Controversial video content challenges viewers to discuss this content, spread it to family and friends and generate additional content.

Another, more entertaining tactic is to produce humorous videos. Humorous videos entertain viewers on the one hand and promote sharing on the other hand. According to Bscheid *et al.* (2009) broadcasting humorous videos is one of the most effective ways to receive positive feedback.

Broadcasting surprising, new and extraordinary content creates a high amount of interest. Furthermore, it can lead to trust and improve the company's/brand's reputation by impressing the viewer. The broadcasting of extraordinary athletic performance to entertain on the one hand and emotionally arouse the viewer on the other hand is especially popular.

Videos with useful/informative content may be more specific videos that help executives with a specific problem, give advice or explore future trends. They are well respected by internet users, consumers and customers. These videos are so popular and well respected because they offer something useful/valuable to the viewer without reclaiming something back from him or her. Finally Walker (2013) sees great potential in the communication with and amongst consumer/customers. Particularly making use of user-generated video content is a

popular communication strategy to build up trust. The tradeoff marketing practitioners have to embark when they follow this strategy is that they giving away competence to a third party.

According to Walker (2013), marketers inspire trust by offering valuable content (entertaining/informative) with these communications tactics on the one hand and on the other increase the chance to disseminate their content message via electronic word-of-mouth.

One of the widely used and popular applications of content marketing is broadcasting content about athletic performance. In doing so, the product/brand in the sponsoring role remains in the background whereas the athletic performance is prioritized. The next section will depict content video marketing in combination with sport sponsorship.

4.3.2.2. Content video marketing in combination with sport sponsorship

Due to the rapid development of online video marketing there are many promising strategies to employ online video content marketing. However, only a few tactics have already been successfully established in the online promotional mix (Walker, 2013). According to Walker (2013) the tactic to broadcast surprising, new and/or extraordinary emotionally touching content has turned out to be a guarantee of success. Particularly videos with sport sponsorship content fulfill exactly these criteria (O'Brien, 2012). As a combination of the following three components – social media, sponsorship and video – this strategy embraces three of the top six content marketing tools in one (Pulizzi and Handley, 2015.a.; .b.). This outstanding combination and the special status for content marketing substantiate the importance of the integration into the promotional mix.

When it comes to the combination of content video marketing and sport sponsorship, marketers produce videos or even entire movies with sport performance content (O'Brien, 2012). The advertised brand is only visible as a sponsor i.e. in the background. Today's videos with sport sponsorship content aren't so different than the promotional tool product placement with one notable exception: The videos/movies are created by the brands/companies themselves, rather than by traditional movie/video producers. Instead of concentrating on sponsorship opportunities in existing communication channels (TV, events, etc.), marketers develop videos/movies/events of their own in the hope that they can attract the audience with great content that will increase brand loyalty and ultimately sales (Pulizzi 2012.b.). O'Brien (2012) underlines the importance of creating "storytelling" content that attracts readers, viewers and listeners to a brand. The storytelling component combines action and emotions and channels it into a series of interesting content in order to "hook" the viewer (Petrick, 2014).

More precisely instead of showcasing the brand (traditional video marketing), the demand for more catching video content may be increased by telling a story about the need, effect of a brand or even (just) an entertaining story (Petrick, 2014).

One of the first companies, which embraced exactly this type of video content marketing, was the Austrian energy drink manufacturer Red Bull GmbH (O'Brien, 2012; Euromonitor International, 2013). Red Bull focuses on broadcasting sponsorship videos with extreme sport content. Operating with the slogan *Red Bull gives you wings* (storyline), the energy drink manufacturer provides more than 5000 videos and 50000 photos on their website for free (O'Brien, 2012). Clearly following a content marketing strategy that is for video/photo content: Red Bull is always perceived as the sponsor in the background and the athletic performance in the foreground (O'Brien, 2012). When it comes to the actual performance content, the energy drink manufacturer constantly strives to communicate a high video quality as well as extraordinary, catching, extreme performances (Euromonitor International, 2013). The best example for this kind of video content marketing is the world record parachute jump from the stratosphere (39045 meter) of Red Bull Stratos team member Felix Baumgartner. The extraordinary athletic performance was broadcasted live and impressed millions of people around the world. Due to its thrilling content – the highly dangerous and extraordinary parachute jump – the video turned viral in seconds (Red Bull Stratos, 2014). Red Bulls dominance in the global energy drink market with 21.4% market share in 166 countries around the world suggests the success of this marketing concept (Euromonitor International, 2013; Red Bull 2014). According to Eckler and Bolts (2011), video advertisements and particularly viral video advertisements fundamentally consist often more of the emotional impact rather than anything else. The reason for this is that the emotional content stimulates the viewer to share more often than product information would. Most videos, which have turned viral heavily, relied on emotional content.

While customers' exposure/cognition is mainly relevant for the sponsorship response (Speed and Thompson 2000), Bal *et al.* (2008) see a need of the integration of the consumers' emotional response to properties in determining sponsorship outcomes.

4.4. SUBSTANTIATION OF EMOTIONAL RESPONSE

When it comes to sponsorship a considerable body of knowledge has developed (Bal *et al.*, 2008). While exposure/cognition is relevant to sponsorship success, Bal *et al.* (2008) argue

that there is a serious need for research into the perceived emotions of consumers/customers influencing their impression of the sponsor (advertised brand).

According to Bal *et al.* (2008), the following four major areas of investigation can be identified in sponsorship research:

- (1) goals/efficiency measurement and managerial implementation;
- (2) factors influencing sponsorship effectiveness;
- (3) ambush marketing;
- (4) sponsorship persuasion process.

When it comes to the persuasion mechanism of sponsorship marketing, more specifically what role emotions play in explaining sponsorship persuasion there is relatively little consensus. Crimmins and Horn (1996) describe sponsorship marketing as an indirect form of persuasion. In line with this, Quester (1996) argues that the emotional involvement of the audience concerning the sponsored activity, created by a complex relationship between consumer and a sponsored property, may suggest that sponsorship exercises a more emotive than a cognitive influence on consumer/customer behaviour. On these grounds, sponsorship models have progressively introduced non-cognitive variables and integrated emotions into sponsorship (Bal *et al.*, 2008). A common approach is adapting the mere exposure effect to sponsorship. This theoretical framework building on the insights of Zajonc (1968) believes in the simple fact of exposing someone to the same stimulus several times can be sufficient to create a preference for this stimulus. More precisely this means that spectators who are exposed to basic stimuli like an advertising board several times during a sport event may develop a feeling of familiarity towards these brands. Ferrand and Pages (1999) highlight that the exposure to the commercial message engages consumer/customer in an inner emotional process. Thus consumers may be more aware of the communication context than of the commercial message (Christensen, 2006). Which means in this context that the consumers'/customers' relationship to the company/brand is build on the emotional connection to the sponsored activity.

With the help of the three dimensions, pleasure (i.e. valence of the emotion), arousal (i.e. intensity of the emotion) and dominance (i.e. feeling of control onto the emotional reaction), a large part of emotional reactions is made tangible (Mehrabian and Russell, 1974; 1977). Nevertheless, Mehrabian and Russell (1974; 1977) recognized that for the survey of emo-

tions two orthogonal factors, intensity and valence are sufficient to represent a broad spectrum of emotional reactions. With this insights as a basis, the model from Bal *et al.* (2008) concentrates on the two key variables intensity and valence of the emotion (Figure 4.1).

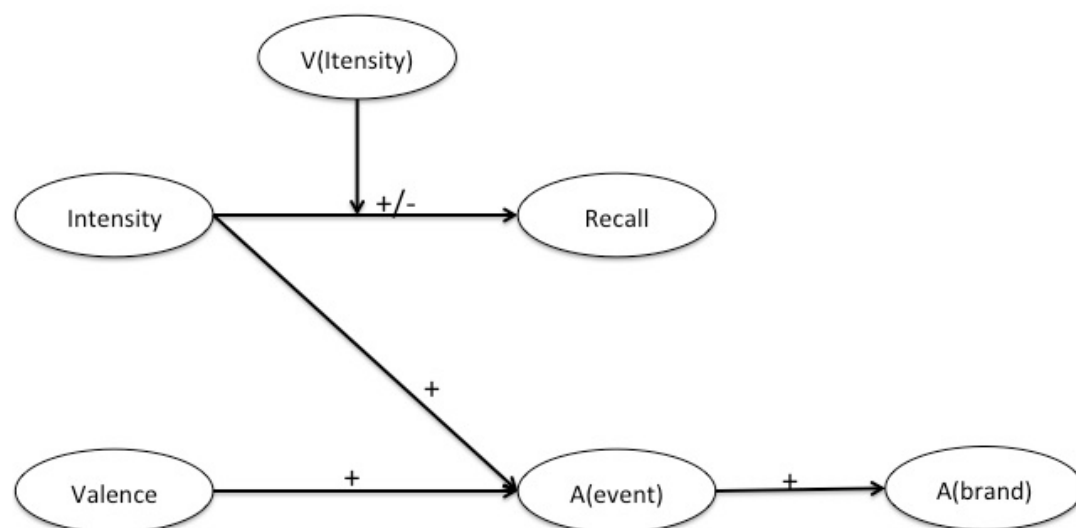


Figure 4.1: Proposed model of emotions influences on sponsorship efficiency

Source: Adopted from Bal *et al.* (2008)

In the conceptual framework, intensity and valence are the two main variables explaining emotional influences on sponsorship efficiency. According to this model, the intensity of emotions exerts influence on the recall of the sponsor/brand and on the sponsored event. Concerning brand recognition, there is a positive and a negative influence, due to high or low intensity. More specifically low levels of intensity would fail to draw the attention and consumers would not be in the position to receive the sponsor's message. High levels of intensity would also distract audience's attention away from the sponsor's message (Yerkes and Dodson, 1908). As a reason of this, Bal *et al.* (2008) have added the variance of intensity to moderate the relationship between intensity and sponsor recall. Both valence and intensity of the perceived emotions have a positive influence on the event and therefore an indirect positive influence on the brand.

With the establishment of a clearly demarcated context within the content-producing technique, used in combination with video and sponsorship marketing, chapter 5 now sets forth and explains the methodology employed in this research effort.

4.5. CONCLUSION

The aim of this chapter was to define online video marketing and its application. It also aimed at carving out the differences between traditional online video advertising and online video content marketing. The combination of online content marketing videos and sport sponsorship was identified as a popular combination in video content marketing.

Online video marketing is defined as video advertisements communicated in the internet. The internet as the main communication channel broadens the horizon for marketers and their options to communicate their videos. More precisely: users do not have to switch communication channels, which enables them to share and generate content easily and in turn may reinforce the potential process of spreading content around the international networks.

In combination with other online communication/promotion channels (websites, social media, e-mail etc.), video marketing has great potential to turn into viral content. The key element of viral marketing is to funnel recipients into a marketing force, which means to convince them of the need for the product/brand with an extraordinary video message content that they are willing to pass on. When it comes to the content, traditional advertising content and valuable content besides traditional promotion are to be distinguished. The central idea in video content marketing is that the advertised brand is only perceived in the background, it providing entertaining and/or informative content to the consumers/customers. The marketing practitioners main goal is to design the content in such an appealing way that the consumers/customers are most likely to forward the video. The value returned is often that people associate positive things with the brand and the video turns due to its likability viral. Thus, the communicated content acquires a special meaning, being the trigger for success. Marketers are turning their backs on traditional advertising and focus more on marketing with content. A significant trend is to produce videos with sport sponsorship content to entertain and “hook” the viewer. Marketing practitioners aim at rubbing off the emotional liaison between sport and viewer on the company/brand/product. Well-known for the application of this content marketing strategy is the energy drink industry. Particularly the two biggest manufacturer Red Bull GmbH and Monster Beverage are currently in a content marketing battle always trying to provide more appealing sport sponsorship content than the competitor.

Why this video content marketing strategy is so popular, why it becomes common use for big brands and to examine if it is just a marketing fad are the main question of the following research.

5. Chapter Five: Methodology

5.1. INTRODUCTION

The preceding literature review illustrated and discussed this study's theoretical principles. Thanks to technological progress, online video marketing has become a decisive instrument in the promotional repertoire (Broxton *et al.*, 2013). Marketing's evolution now suggests that disseminating online video is essential to effective strategy (Goh, Heng and Lin, 2013). Ideally, videos 'go viral' (Eckler and Bolls, 2011). In order to accomplish this, viewers must be incited, by extraordinary or compelling content, to share/forward the video (Pulizzi, 2013.c.). The previous chapters illustrated that consumers turn away from traditional advertising and prefer to receive something valuable rather than being harassed to make a purchase (Mangold and Faulds, 2009; Goh, Heng and Lin, 2013). This value component consists of entertaining and/or informative content, which appeals to the target audience. Delivering this kind of content through online video marketing is popular and rightly so (Giraudie, 2014). The fourth chapter illustrated that emotions play a significant role in attracting the consumers'/customers' attention, particularly in video content marketing with sponsorship content (Bscheid *et al.*, 2009; O'Brien, 2012; Ciampa, 2013). The phenomena, however, has received little scholarly attention. Further research shall draw on the energy drink industry, specifically Red Bull, as a pioneer in applying video content marketing (O'Brien, 2012).

This chapter describes the methodology used to study video content marketing with sponsorship content. It begins with the concretisation of the main aim of this thesis. In order to establish the chosen research approach, the primary and secondary objectives of this thesis help to specify the main aim. Following that, the research framework for this thesis is presented. In a third step, the corresponding hypotheses are introduced. Subsequently the measurement and scales to prove the hypotheses are discussed. Consistent with these scales the composition of the questionnaire is discussed in more detail in a next step. Then, the sampling and sample size is specified. Finally a plan for the analysis of the data is described and the key points are summed up in the conclusion of this chapter.

5.2. INTENTION

The intention of this research is to reveal the relationship between sponsorship and emotions in connection with content marketing in the energy drink industry. This connection will be illustrated by an example survey. Target object for this survey was a promotional video with content marketing character from Red Bull (Best of Red Bull all the time, 2013). Naturally for

content marketing, the content of this video is athletic performance, not promotion of the brand. So the only direct connection to the brand in this video is the label placement from Red Bull. A much more interesting aspect of this research is the indirect connection to the brand – the emotional connection to the athletic video and the resultant linkage to the sponsor – which should be deconstructed. In order to ensure that emotions have an influence on the intensification of the awareness and increased identification with the brand in the following, the video needs to have a very intense emotional content. The planned procedure of the survey is the presentation of the video to the target audience and a questionnaire. The following sections rely on Malhotra's (2010) research standards to achieve this goal.

5.3. OBJECTIVES

According to Malhotra (2010), the reason why organizations engage in marketing research is to identify and solve marketing problems. He distinguishes between problem-identification research and problem-solving research. This research concentrates on the illumination of a relatively new marketing concept. So this research can be classified as problem-identification. In the following, the problem is discussed and the resulting primary objectives of this thesis are presented.

Content marketing has been defined as a promotion strategy, which extends the promotional repertoire and makes use of several communication channels, particularly those of social media. It focuses on offering something valuable to the consumer/customer for free to gain something valuable in return. Communicating with the audience on a non-purchase-pushing intention basis attracts consumer in a different way (Pulizzi, 2013.c.). The involvement of the target audience with a non-purchase-pushing intention distinguishes content marketing from traditional marketing (Giesen, 2015). This involvement allows the consumer to generate content while giving them the feeling of being part of the marketing. This feeling is strengthened through the basic thought of content marketing, which means verbalised giving something valuable to the consumer and receiving something valuable in return (O'Brien, 2012; CMI, 2015). As to that, online video content marketing is a win-win situation for the marketing practitioner (O'Brien, 2012). On the one hand content marketing practitioners offer a valuable video (entertaining and/or informative) to the consumer, which builds trust and increases reputation. On the other hand it is highly possible that the consumer will share it if they like the video or are emotionally aroused (Cheyfitz, 2013). When it comes to the content of those videos the creativity of marketing practitioners to produce appealing, useful or entertaining

content is limitless. A popular and, for this thesis, important method to fill videos with content is the combination with sport sponsorship. According to Bal *et al.* (2008), little is known about the perceived emotions of consumers influencing their impression of the sponsor. Particularly in combination with video content marketing there is no specific framework that could guide investigations of consumers' emotional reaction to an online video with sport sponsorship content. This thesis fills this gap by elucidating a technique that seeks to overcome these weaknesses. Thus the main aim of this thesis is to find out if there is a link between sponsorship and emotions in video content marketing in the energy drink industry sector in South Africa. Primary and secondary objectives are:

Primary objectives:

- I. To determine how consumers perceive the sponsor, through content marketing in sponsorship.
- II. To determine if emotions, triggered by content marketing, influence the attitude towards the sponsors/brand.

Secondary objective:

- I. To determine whether content marketing in the energy drink industry sector only appeals to a certain audience.

Before the constructs and the hypotheses are connected with corresponding measurement scales, the next section presents the conceptual framework of this thesis.

5.4. RESEARCH CONTEXT: SPONSORSHIP EMOTIONS FRAMEWORK

In pursuit of the main research objectives above, this thesis employs a combination of the models of Speed and Thompson (2000) and Bal *et al.* (2008). A new conceptual framework that helps to visualize the proposed connection between sponsorship and emotions in content marketing is exemplified in Figure 5.1.

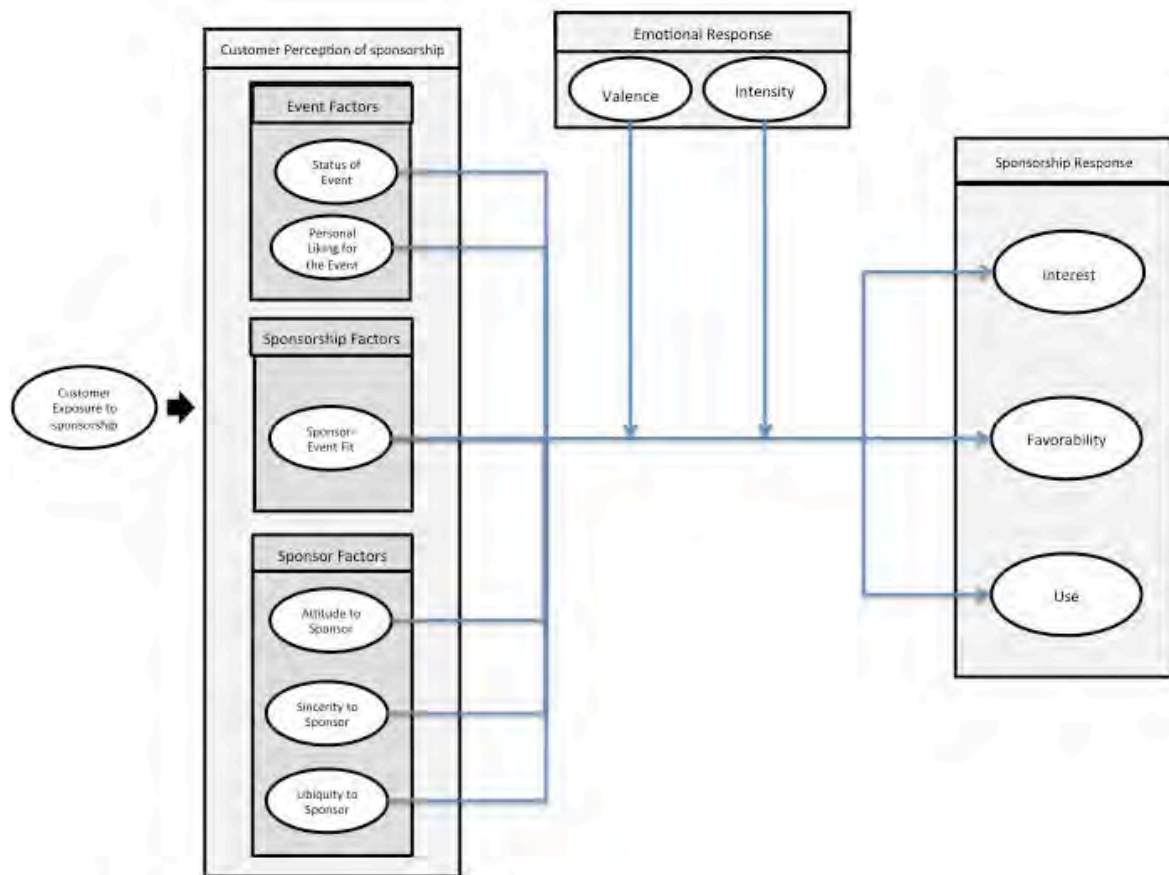


Figure 5.1: Sponsorship emotions framework

Source: Adopted from Speed and Thompson (2000) and Bal *et al.* (2008)

The conceptual framework of Speed and Thompson (2000) is extended by the inclusion of an emotional level. For this extension the elements of Bal *et al.* (2008), intensity and valence, are used in Figure 5.1. In view of the meeting point of the consumer and the sponsor, the attitude of the consumer to the event and the sponsor should be considered as a central idea of sponsorship conviction. An emotional reaction triggered by an event will shape the consumer's attitude, in most cases subconsciously, towards the event. Reciprocally this attitude will positively rub off on the sponsors' brand (Lee, Sandler and Shani, 1997). Accordingly, exactly at this point the basic elements, intensity and valence of the emotion, should reveal the emotional experience engendered by the sponsorship (Bal *et al.*, 2008). The present model and the associated findings show that emotions play an important role with respect to sponsorship. This new conceptual framework and the follow-up research proposes to build upon the work of, on the one hand, Speed and Thompson (2000), who demonstrated the importance of the correct application of sponsorship, and on the other hand Bal *et al.* (2008), who showed the importance of emotions regarding sponsorship.

5.4.1. Conceptual framework

The conceptual framework above creates four leads that affect sport sponsorship:

- (1) Attitudes towards the event
- (2) Attitudes towards the sponsor
- (3) Perception of congruence between sponsor and event
- (4) Emotional Factors

5.4.1.1. Attitudes towards the event

The attitude of the customer to an event is verbalized by personal liking for the event and perceived status of the sponsored event. Personal liking is a sense that the individual consumer gains directly from the sporting event. Research indicated that consumers, who perceived the event to be attractive and interesting, believed it would have a stronger impact on the sponsor's image (D'Astous and Bitz, 1995). Therefore a sponsor can improve its reception by endorsing events preferred by the target audience.

Hypothesis 1:

There is a positive relationship between the consumers' personal liking of the event and the consumers' response in terms of Interest (H1a), Favourability (H1b) and Use (H1c).

Perceived status of the sponsored event is an idea that the consumers gain indirectly from the sporting event, even if the consumer does not like the event. This may be an event such as the Olympics or the FIFA World Cup that causes indirect perception of the sponsor (Speed and Thompson, 2000).

Hypothesis 2:

There is a positive relationship between the perceived status of the event and the consumers' response in terms of Interest (H2a), Favourability (H2b) and Use (H2c).

5.4.1.2. Attitudes towards the sponsor

The attitude towards the sponsor is communicated by the following three distinct constructs; attitude towards the sponsor, perceived sincerity of the sponsor and perceived ubiquity of the sponsor. Research in sponsorship has shown the importance of attitude towards the sponsor in effective sponsorship (Speed and Thompson, 2000). Furthermore, this research suggests that sponsors who have a sympathetic and convenient image receive an increased positive response to their sponsorships than those who do not (Javalgi *et al.*, 1994; Stipp and Schiavone 1996).

Hypothesis 3:

There is a positive relationship between the consumers' attitude towards the sponsor and the consumers' response in terms of Interest (H3a), Favourability (H3b) and Use (H3c).

It is assumed that a sponsor's well-received sincerity translates into a beneficial image (Speed and Thompson, 2000).

Hypothesis 4:

There is a positive relationship between the consumers' perception of the sincerity of the sponsor and the consumers' response in terms of Interest (H4a), Favourability (H4) and Use (H4c).

When it comes to frequency and selectivity of a firm's sponsorship activity, there is a close connection to the perceived ubiquity of the sponsor. The study by Speed and Thompson (2000) illustrates that consumers show little interest in sponsors who sponsor a large number of activities compared with sponsors that concentrate on only one or two events/types of events.

Hypothesis 5:

There is a negative relationship between a high-perceived ubiquity of the sponsor and the consumers' response in terms of Interest (H5a), Favourability (H5b) and Use (H5c).

5.4.1.3. Perception of congruence between sponsor and event

The congruence between sponsor and event (sponsor-event fit) plays a very important role in sport sponsorship (Stipp and Schiavone 1996). In advertising research, this sponsor-event fit affects the personal liking, the perceived status and the attitude of the consumer towards the sponsor (Allen and Janiszewski 1989).

Hypothesis 6:

There is a positive relationship between the perceived sponsor-event fit and the consumers' response in terms of Interest (H6a), Favourability (H6b) and Use (H6c).

5.4.1.4. Emotional factors

In accordance with the conceptual framework in Figure 5.1, intensity and valence are the two main variables pointing at emotional influence on sponsorship efficiency. According to the model, the intensity of emotions exerts influence on the recall of the sponsor/brand and on the sponsored event. Using these two main variables as a basis, the author hypothesizes the following:

Hypothesis 7:

Valence of emotion moderates the relationship between:

- H7a: Status of the event and Interest for the sponsor.
- H7b: Status of the event and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H7c: Status of the event and Use of the product.
- H7d: Personal liking for the event and Interest for the sponsor.
- H7e: Personal liking for the event and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H7f: Personal liking for the event and Use of the product.
- H7g: Attitude to sponsor and Interest for the sponsor.
- H7h: Attitude to sponsor and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H7i: Attitude to sponsor and Use of the product.
- H7j: Sincerity of sponsor and Interest for the sponsor.
- H7k: Sincerity of sponsor and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H7l: Sincerity of sponsor and Use of the product.
- H7m: Ubiquity of sponsor and Interest for the sponsor.
- H7n: Ubiquity of sponsor and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H7o: Ubiquity of sponsor and Use of the product.

Hypothesis 8:

Intensity of emotion moderates the relationship between:

- H8a: Status of the event and Interest for the sponsor.
- H8b: Status of the event and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H8c: Status of the event and Use of the product.

- H8d: Personal liking for the event and Interest for the sponsor.
- H8e: Personal liking for the event and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H8f: Personal liking for the event and Use of the product.
- H8g: Attitude to sponsor and Interest for the sponsor.
- H8h: Attitude to sponsor and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H8i: Attitude to sponsor and Use of the product.
- H8j: Sincerity of sponsor and Interest for the sponsor.
- H8k: Sincerity of sponsor and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H8l: Sincerity of sponsor and Use of the product.
- H8m: Ubiquity of sponsor and Interest for the sponsor.
- H8n: Ubiquity of sponsor and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H8o: Ubiquity of sponsor and Use of the product.

Following the preceding literature review and the establishment of a well-defined conceptual framework, the testing of the hypothesised relationships and the emotional sharing effect of sport sponsorship on content marketing, the next section now focuses on marrying the constructs and corresponding hypotheses with suitable measurement scales.

5.5. MEASUREMENT AND SCALING

The aim of this section is to provide the right components for an effective measurement. Measurement, more precisely, research instruments or measurement tools (e.g. questionnaires, scales etc.) are designed to obtain data on a topic of interest from research subjects. According to Malhotra (2010:282) measurement means: *“assigning numbers or other symbols to characteristics of objects according to certain prespecified rules.”* The evaluation process – statistical analysis of the resulting data – enables the researchers to prove hypotheses and to illustrate complex coherences (Greving, 2009).

This thesis' topic of interest is to prove that video content marketing with sport sponsorship content evokes emotions that intensify attractiveness of the brand. The previous three chapters presented the existing secondary literature to create a frame of reference. Now, this section presents the primary data collection and the research design.

A marketing research design is described by Malhotra (2010) as a framework or blueprint, which helps to conduct a marketing research project. Exploratory and conclusive research designs must be distinguished. Exploratory research primarily aims at providing insights into and understanding of the problem situation confronting the researcher (Malhotra, 2010). The conclusive research design approach provides a more structured and planned design, due to the articulation of specific hypotheses and the examination of relationships (Malhotra, 2010). In conclusive research approaches, the data is collected by specific hypotheses, which are tested with the help of surveys and questionnaires. Within conclusive research Malhotra (2010) further distinguishes between causal and descriptive marketing research methods. While causal research methods illuminate which variables are the cause (independent variables) and which variables are the effect (dependent variables) of a phenomenon, descriptive research methods generally describe market characteristics or functions (Malhotra, 2010).

Considering these distinctions, this research design has a descriptive approach. It illuminates a specific problem articulated through hypotheses in pursuit of a basic idea, in this thesis about video content marketing (Malhotra, 2010). The objective of descriptive research design is to describe market characteristics or functions. Due to the fact that there is little literature and no secondary data describes a useful scientific method for considering content marketing, it was necessary to evaluate primary data to illuminate this thesis's main questions. In order to meet this purpose, a questionnaire covering the thesis requirements was developed. A questionnaire (schedule, interview form or measuring instrument) is a structured data technique that consists of formalized set of questions for obtaining information from respondents (Malhotra, 2010). According to Malhotra (2010) a specification of the measurement and scaling procedures delivers the basis for a questionnaire. When it comes to the allocation of suitable scaling techniques, Malhotra (2010) distinguishes between comparative and non-comparative scales. Comparative scaling is a technique that directly compares stimulus objects with one another. Whereas non-comparative scales focus on evaluating each stimulus object independently of the other objects in the stimulus set. Non-comparative scaling is the most widely used scaling technique in marketing research (Malhotra, 2010). Especially itemized rating scales are widely used in marketing research, providing basic components of more complex scales (Malhotra, 2010). Which scales are used for this research is discussed hereinafter. First, the scaling requirements for the screening questions (introduction and socioeconomic construct) are presented; secondly, the sponsorship- and subsequently the emotional- scaling requirements are discussed.

5.5.1. Sponsorship to response model

Speed and Thompson's (2000) methodology forms a basis for this thesis's sponsorship scaling requirements. In *Determinants of Sport Sponsorship Response*, Speed and Thompson (2000) make use of non-comparative itemized rating scales to verify their research hypotheses. Indeed non-comparative itemized rating scales are a popular application in marketing evaluations (Malhotra, 2010). According to Malhotra (2010), a researcher should keep six basics in mind while constructing non-comparative itemized scales.

First, the number of scale categories should be taken into consideration and accounted for: On the one hand, a greater number of scale categories can refine the discrimination among stimulus objects, on the other hand, a greater number of categories are also more difficult to conceive for respondents (Malhotra, 2010). Therefore Malhotra (2010) recommends varying the scale categories between five and nine to ensure efficient results.

Secondly, researchers must decide between a balanced or unbalanced scale. While a balanced scale has an equal number of favourable and unfavourable categories, an unbalanced scale is, tellingly, unequal in this regard (Malhotra, 2010). Furthermore, researchers must decide in favour of an odd or even number of categories in their scale design. The main question here is to include a neutral point or not. Researchers then have the opportunity to communicate to participants that no neutral or indifferent responses exist (Malhotra, 2010).

Fourth, researchers can force respondents to express an opinion. This could be done in not giving the respondents a no opinion or no knowledge option (Malhotra, 2010).

Fifth, the nature and degree of verbal description have an effect on the response. Malhotra (2010) describes an opportunity to influence the response distribution, by the nature of the adjectives used to anchor the scale. Strong anchors (1=completely disagree, 7= generally agree) evoke more peaked response distributions because respondents are less likely to use extreme scale categories. Whereas weak anchors (1= generally disagree, 7= generally agree) produce uniform and flat distributions (Malhotra, 2010). Finally the physical form or configuration also plays an important role when it comes to the construction of non-comparative itemized scales (Malhotra, 2010). By making use of the basics of Speed and Thompson (2000) and of Malhotra (2010), the next sections develop the scales for this thesis. Speed and Thompson (2000) divide the sponsorship measurement scales to operationalize sponsorship response into independent and dependent measures. These two measures and the corresponding scales shall now be discussed.

5.5.1.1. Independent variables

For the evaluation of independent measures, Speed and Thompson make do with the Likert-type scale and the semantic differential scale. In order to maintain clarity, to operationalize sponsorship response, this section shall only make use of the Likert-type scale as well. The Likert-type scale is an itemized rating scale (Malhotra, 2010). More precisely it is a method for measuring personal attitude that is queried by means of so-called items. The items are positively or negatively framed statements about an issue to which respondents can agree or disagree in several predetermined gradations. A Likert-type scale consists not of a single, but several items that are often divided into scales and form a questionnaire together (Hartley and Betts, 2010; Malhotra, 2010).

How the Likert-type scale is used to operationalize the independent measures is described hereafter. The independent measures for this study concentrate on the evaluation of variables that focus on the consumer's attitude towards the video and the sponsor-event fit. The variables were measured in a describing item, 7-point Likert-type scale. In the Likert-type scale the respondents were asked to indicate the level of agreement with each statement. The items vary from 3-5, depending on how well one variable can be recorded. This study used a balanced scale with an equal number of favourable and unfavourable categories. By using an odd number of categories, Speed and Thompson (2000) gave the respondents the option to choose a neutral/impartial category that does not force them to express their opinion. The nature and degree of verbal description was designed with strong anchors to receive a more peaked response. The physical form or configuration of the scale was horizontal with non-numbered units to tick. In total the following 6 variables were made measurable: personal liking for the video, status of the event, attitude towards the sponsor, perceived sincerity, perceived ubiquity, and sponsor-event fit.

In order to verify hypothesis 1, the personal liking for the video was measured on a four-item, 7-point Likert-type scale. The four items were framed as statements about the respondents' personal liking of the event and they were asked to indicate the level of agreement with each statement. All the items that were used for the independent variables are listed in the questionnaire in Appendix B.

In order to prove that there is a positive relationship between the perceived status of the event and the indirect perception of the sponsor (Hypothesis 2), a three-item, 7 point Likert-type scale was used. Similar to the measurement of personal liking of the event, items are

framed as statements and the respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with each statement.

In order to measure the attitude towards the sponsor (Hypothesis 3) a four-item, 7-point Likert-type scale was used. In order to find out the attitude towards the company, statements about the personal image of the company were formulated and respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement and disagreement.

Concerning the operationalisation of sincerity of the sponsor (Hypothesis 4) a four-item, 7-point Likert-type scale was used. The items were presented as statements about the sponsors' motivation/efforts into the sponsorship and respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with each statement.

In order to verify hypothesis 5 (ubiquity of the sponsor) a five-item, 7-point Likert-type scale was used. Finally, for hypothesis 6 the operationalisation of sponsor-event fit was measured on a five-item, 7-point Likert-type scale. The following section now sets forth with the dependent variables.

5.5.1.2. Dependent variables

The dependent measures on sponsorship response were operationalized as the respondents' attitudes and intentions. In this questionnaire, respondents were also asked to indicate the level of agreement with each statement. All items that are used for the dependent variables are listed in the questionnaire in Appendix B. Concerning the sponsorship response, the following three variables were specified: interest, favourability, and use, for the sponsor and the brand. Each of these factors was operationalized with a three-item, 7-point Likert-type scale.

5.5.2. **Moderation model**

Although aware of professional, computer-supported, interactive feedback systems like the "Perception Analyzer" which enables researchers to measure emotional response to television commercials (Malhotra, 2010), this thesis remains faithful to more conventional measurements. This thesis relies on the theoretical construct of Bal *et al.* (2008). According to Bal *et al.* (2008), intensity and valence of the emotion are perfect basic elements to illustrate emotional response and the emotional experience caused by sponsorship. For the practical part -the operationalisation of emotions concerning video content- this thesis extends the theoretical construct of Bal *et al.* (2008).

Based on Damasio's (2000) understanding of emotions, one of the most common references on emotions and neuroscience in consumer research, emotions are operationalized in feelings (Damasio, 2000). Because what is really measured on an emotion scale are feelings of emotions, thus it is more an indication of an experienced emotion than the actual emotion (Bechara, A., Damasio, H., and Damasio, A. R., 2000; Sørensen, 2008). Therefore, for the evaluation concerning emotional response in videos with sponsorship content, this thesis focused on the evaluation of feelings rather than emotions.

Apposite to the goal of this section -the assessment of emotional response (practically expressed through feelings) in videos with commercial content- Edell and Burke (1987) focused on the affective component of attitude, specifically on feelings. More precisely instead of only experiencing the attitude towards an event, Edell and Burke (1987) find an additional insight into the effects of advertising, by expanding the explanatory variables, including how advertisements make respondents feel. According to them, feelings generated by advertisements are distinct from thoughts about the advertisement and represent a qualitatively different dimension of attitude (Edell and Burke, 1987). In order to verify the hypothesis concerning emotions and feelings, this thesis references the feeling scale 1 by Edell and Burke (1987). Based on a pilot study, Edell and Burke (1987) worked out a feeling scale to evaluate feelings triggered by a video with a commercial background. They developed an individual 65-items 5-point semantic scale and subdivided the items into three groups. The semantic differential scale has been developed in psychology to figure out the connotative meaning of objectives, events and concepts (Heise, 1970; Malhotra, 2010). The resulting valuation is used to derive the attitude towards a given object, event or concept. More precisely, in contrast to the Likert-type scale which uses direct questions, the semantic differential scale asks the respondents how strongly they link a term to certain characteristics (Heise, 1970; Malhotra, 2010). A 7-point rating scale bounded at each end by one of two bipolar adjectives is the typical application form for this type of scale. Due to its versatility of items, the semantic differential is today one of the most widely used rating scales for the measurement of attitudes (Ding and Ng, 2008; Malhotra, 2010). On the basis of Edell and Burke's (1987) semantic feeling scale, the hypotheses are verified in the following.

Concerning the operationalisation of the variable pleasure (i.e. valence of the emotion), a six-item 7-point semantic differential feeling scale was developed. The six items were framed as feelings the respondents might have had while watching the video (research object). Every item symbolises a feeling concerning the valence of the emotion (pleasure) and respondents

were asked how much they felt each of these feelings while watching the video. The items that were used for all emotional/feeling variables are detailed in Appendix B. When it comes to the verification of hypothesis 8 and the resulting evaluation of the variable arousal (i.e. intensity of the emotion), a six-item 7-point semantic differential feeling scale was developed. Again, six items were framed as feelings, which the respondents' may have been exposed to while watching the video. Here every item symbolised a feeling concerning the intensity of the emotion (arousal) and respondents were asked how much they felt each of these feelings while watching the video. The forthcoming section sets out the questionnaire design of this study.

5.6. QUESTIONNAIRE DESIGN

According to Malhotra (2010), the development of the actual form design (questionnaire) is an important step in formulating a research design. Malhotra (2010) defines a questionnaire as a formalized set of questions for obtaining information from respondents. On the basis of the specification of the research design and the determination of the measurement and scaling procedures above, the next sections shall discuss the development of the questionnaire design for this research. More precisely this section describes the objectives of the questionnaire and the steps involved in creating the form design. The finalized questionnaire, which all respondents were presented with, and which was optimized in the pre-test, is presented in Appendix B.

According to Malhotra (2010), the questionnaire design -the art of asking questions- plays a significant role in the data evaluation process. This questionnaire's main aim is to prove that video content marketing with sport sponsorship content evokes emotions that intensify the brand 'like'.

Any research activity that involves human subjects, or research that may hold ethical consequences for the University of Cape Town has to be developed in keeping with the requirements of the ethics committee. Thus, this questionnaire was developed under the requirements of the Commerce Faculty Ethics in Research Committee. Basically they ensure that the respondents are informed about their right to withdraw at any time from the research and the research is ethically reasonable. The ethical clearance document is attached in Appendix A.

According to Malhotra (2010), all questions that deal with similar issues should be pooled in one section of the questionnaire before a new topic begins. When it comes to the type of

information obtained in a questionnaire, Malhotra (2010) classifies it into basic information, classification information and identification information. The basic information relates directly to the research problem and is of greatest importance to the researcher (Malhotra, 2010). Classification information comprises socioeconomic and demographic characteristics used to classify the respondents. Identification information (names, e-mail address, etc.), not requested in every questionnaire, may be obtained to list respondents and remit promised incentives. As a general guideline for the structure of the questionnaire design, Malhotra (2010) recommends the following order for presenting information/questions to the respondents. Basic information should be obtained at the beginning, before risking alienating the respondents by asking a series of personal questions (Malhotra, 2010).

Following the thread of the section above, the questionnaire is similarly built up to the measurement and scaling section. Accordingly, this questionnaire is subdivided into a sponsorship section and an emotion section. In more detail the questionnaire consists of four parts: First, three opening questions make sure that the respondents are aware of the actual sponsor (advertiser) of the video. Secondly, it is discussed how this questionnaire operationalizes sponsorship response and thirdly how to prove that emotions (feelings) moderate sponsorship response in a certain way. Part four ascertains that respondents match the target group. In the following, these four parts are presented in more detail.

5.6.1. Development of sponsorship to response questionnaire section

As mentioned before, this section of the development of the form design focuses explicitly on the design of the measurement of sponsorship response in video content marketing. Concerning this matter it is worthwhile to briefly examine the information needed when it comes to the presentation of the questionnaire design (Malhotra, 2010).

In the past there was no specific theoretical framework concerning consumers' reaction to sponsorship and there was much debate over research methodology (Cornwell and Maignan, 1998; Speed and Thompson, 2000). The main problems were issues of control, of generalisability and managerial application (Speed and Thompson, 2000). In the last decade, sponsorship became the main source of assets in sport and an excellent promotional activity for companies (Faganel and Bratina, 2013).

According to Cortez (1992), a common method for evaluating the effectiveness of sponsorship is to measure the quantity of how much customers are exposed to the sponsor. In sponsorship matters exposure of the sponsor in form of brand name, appearance of the logo, etc.

is supposed to build an indirect connection between athletic performance and sponsoring brand (Cortez, 1992; Speed and Thompson, 2000; O'Brien, 2012). Marketing practitioners follow this strategy because they expect a rub-off effect from the athletic performance on the brand (Madrigal, 2001). In contrast to that Speed and Thompson (2000) see a significant problem with such an approach for sponsorship evaluation. According to them the measurement of exposure is post hoc and thus cannot be used directly. Particularly when it comes to the evaluations of proposals or sponsorship decisions a quick solution is an advantage. Taking this point into account, the empirical results by Grohs, Wagner and Vsetecka (2004) show that event-sponsor fit, event involvement, and exposure are the dominant factors suggest sponsor recall. The combination of these factors should build up the basis for successful sponsorship planning and execution. According to this, there exists a substantial body of research that suggests, in most circumstances, exposure is an important but not necessary requirement to operationalize sponsorship response (Speed and Thompson, 2000).

The operationalisation of the consumers' attitude towards different attributes of a video and the corresponding sponsorship response is the main information needed from this section in this questionnaire. Deviating from Speed and Thompsons' (2000) concept, which is asking respondents for their opinion on a certain event, this questionnaire asks respondents for their opinion on a video, due to its focus on video content marketing. This setup offers few varying choices to conduct the interview. For example a telephone questionnaire, which asks respondents to watch a certain video by Red Bull while they are on the phone must be excluded. An email questionnaire with attached video could make sense in theory, but would predictably fail in practice nevertheless: due to its large data volume, the email is likely to be sent directly to people's spam folder. With these considerations in mind, the data for this research was collected in a classroom setting. More precisely, people on the campus of the University of Cape Town, or in private environment, were asked if they would participate in a study concerning video content marketing. In the event they participated, respondents watched the Red Bull video and subsequently answered the questionnaire. Given the fact that all 4 parts of the questionnaire belong together, the interviewing method remains the same. How the single parts are designed is discussed hereinafter.

5.6.1.1. Part one

The first section of the questionnaire included three preliminary questions. According to Malhotra (2010), opening questions may intensify the confidence and cooperation of the re-

spondents. Thus these three questions were designed short, simple and 'nonthreatening'. Furthermore they were designed as structured questions. That means, the response categories are given and thus the respondents operate within a defined grid. Malhotra (2010) recommends asking respondents for their opinion, because people like to express their own opinion. In doing so, respondents indirectly become more familiar with the topic and are more positive for the remaining questions. In line with that, two of the three questions referred to the participant's personal opinion on extreme sport. However, these two opening questions were unrelated to the research problem and their responses were not analysed. These filling questions, also known under the term 'buffer questions', serve to distract from the actual investigation target in a survey. According to Malhotra (2010), buffer questions create a situation where respondents used to answer more realistic. The target objective of the first part was to find out whether the respondents were aware of the sponsor -Red Bull- in the video presented. This type of question, also known as a 'filter' question, screens potential respondents to ensure they meet the requirements of the target group.

Since this section's content relates directly to the research problem, this part delivered basic information (Malhotra, 2010). In order to maintain the logical order of the questions, the second section was introduced by a brief transitional introduction on the subject of sponsorship.

5.6.1.2. Part two

The second section of the questionnaire includes the testing of the hypotheses concerning sponsorship response. In order to test these hypotheses, nine measurements were carried out. In total the following nine variables were made measurable: personal liking for the video, status of the event, attitude towards the sponsor, perceived sincerity, perceived ubiquity, sponsor-event fit, interest, favourability and use. As illustrated in the research context, the first six variables have a possible moderating effect on the sponsorship response (interest, favourability and use). Testing this effect – whether personal liking for the video, status of the event, attitude towards the sponsor, perceived sincerity, perceived ubiquity and sponsor-event fit have an effect on sponsorship response (interest, favourability and use) – is the main objective of this section.

Thus the information needed in this section concerning the form design, is how to put these nine variables to paper as precisely as possible. In order to minimize the effort required of the respondents, structured questions were used also in this part. In this section the defined grid gave the respondents an increased number of points (7-point Likert-type scale) to evalu-

ate the statements (items). To provide a logical order, the form design started with the six variables explaining sponsorship response (independent). It ended with the corresponding dependent variables symbolising sponsorship response. Furthermore, every variable made measureable with at least three items, is clearly zoned to the subsequent variable. Following another of Malhotra's findings (2010) ordinary words were used to make this part as comprehensible as possible. Further, the statements were couched with less unambiguous words to avoid inconsistency in the meaning (Malhotra, 2010).

5.6.2. Development of emotions questionnaire section

Similar to the development of the sponsorship questionnaire section, in the development of the section dealing with emotions, it is also worthwhile to unpack the type of information sought after.

Increasing technological complexity leads to an increasing tendency for consumers to be overexposed to marketing messages (Mai and Schoeller, 2009). Because of this saturation, marketing practitioners are challenged as never before to get their message across in order to stand out against world wide competitors (Mai and Schoeller, 2009). Broadcasting surprising, new and/or extraordinary emotionally touching content has become relatively popular in online marketing practice (Walker, 2013). Particularly videos with sport sponsorship content are a relatively new but already a popular application of online marketing practitioners (Pulizzi, 2012.b.). Marketing practitioners expect an emotional arousal in the viewing phase caused by the athletic performance and corresponding to that an emotional rub-off effect on the sponsoring brand (Pulizzi, 2012.b.). Because of its rapid development, this specific topic has not been explored in scientific literature, not to mention proven. Poels and Dewitte (2006) highlight the importance of emotions in the advertising process and stress that there is still more work needed to calibrate measurement methodologies of emotion in advertising.

Taking this lack of knowledge into account, the information needed for this section is a basis that connects sponsorship and emotions on the one hand and a concept to measure emotions triggered by a video on the other. As discussed in the section above, the concept by Bal *et al.* (2008) serves as a basis and illustrates the connection between emotions triggered by sponsorship with the help of the two variables: arousal (intensity of the emotion), and pleasure (valence of the emotion). In terms of operationalisation, Edell and Burkes' (1987) approach to measure perceived feelings triggered by a video served as a basic measurement

to operationalize the two variables arousal and pleasure. The form design developed on the basis of this knowledge is discussed hereinafter.

5.6.2.1. Part three

The third section of the questionnaire focuses on the evaluation of the perceived emotions triggered by the video with sponsorship content. Operationalized with a 7-point semantic differential scale, respondents were asked to relate their feelings during the video. In more detail respondents were asked to choose where their position lies on a scale of bipolar adjectives describing a feeling negatively or positively. The adjectives are a compilation of the 56 adjectives from Edell and Burkes' (1978) semantic feeling scale. In order to operationalize pleasure, i.e. the valence of the feelings perceived during a video, six bipolar adjectives symbolising pleasure in a certain way were presented to the respondent in a semantic differential scale grid. The same pattern was used to operationalize arousal (intensity of the feeling). How the fit ability for each bipolar adjective pair was tested is discussed further on in the pre-test questionnaire section (5.6.3).

5.6.2.2. Part four

In line with Malhotra (2010), the content of the final part includes personal questions with socioeconomic character to classify the respondents.

The first question asks the respondents to identify their gender in order to deliver an answer to the secondary research objective; *“does content marketing in the energy drink industry sector only appeal to a certain audience?”* The respondents are also asked how old they are to ensure that they are part of the target audience and within the bounds of UCT's ethical requirements. Further sample size considerations are discussed in the section sampling (5.7). Before the sampling process is described, the next section outlines the pre-test.

5.6.3. Pre-test questionnaire considerations

A clean design of the questionnaire does not guarantee that each participant understands the questions correctly. The most important step according to Malhotra (2010) in order to obtain valid data is a pre-test questionnaire process. Malhotra (2010) defines pre-testing as the testing of the questionnaire on a small sample of respondents for the purpose of improving the questionnaire by identifying and eliminating potential problems. With regard to this research, 45 respondents participated in the pre-test/pilot study. These respondents were marketing students in the fourth year of the School of Management Studies at the University

of Cape Town and thus familiar with questionnaires. A brief discussion of the questionnaire provided helpful verbal feedback to start the evaluation of the pre-test. After cleaning the data and transferring the answers into Microsoft Excel, thirty-nine data sets could be collected. According to Pallant (2013), a factor analysis is suitable for a pre-test analysis. It breaks down the many different empirical observations of statistical variables to a few latent variables (factors). With this procedure, questions that have a poor response rate can be located and changed or eliminated. IBM SPSS Statistics is a software package used for statistical analysis (Pallant, 2013). A more detailed description of the software and its application for this thesis is discussed in the section 5.8 (Data collection and preparation) in this chapter. In order to eliminate potential problems concerning every single question and to provide an advanced base for the actual data collection, the 39 data sets were transferred from Microsoft Excel to IBM SPSS Statistics. With the help of the SPSS software, the thirty-nine data sets were used to carry out one factor analysis for sponsorship response and one factor analysis for emotional response. Beside two of the 45 questions on sponsorship and emotional response, no considerable deviations were found. Concerning the 2 statistical outliers, the structure of the sentence and the content were changed in order to improve the response rate for these two questions.

The factor analysis conducted with SPSS eliminated potential problems and consequently provided a clean starting base for the actual survey. The classification of the sampling size is discussed in more detail in the next section.

5.7. SAMPLING

At this stage the research problem has been identified and the nature of research design (descriptive) has been determined. Furthermore, a specification of the measurement and scaling have been helpful to create the constructs. On this basis the questionnaire has been designed. In line with Malhotra (2010) the next step is to design a suitable sampling.

The main aim of marketing research, including a practical questionnaire, is to obtain information about the characteristics or parameters of a population (Malhotra, 2010). However, in reality it is a lengthy, costly and almost impossible procedure to measure the total population. This is where statistical sampling comes in, the idea of trying to take a representative part of the population, perform the experiment and extrapolate it back to the population as a whole. A central approach to statistical sampling is proposed by Malhotra (2010). Malhotra (2010) subdivides the sampling design process into the following five steps: define the target popu-

lation, determine the sample frame, select a sampling technique, determine the sample size and execute the sampling process. On the basis of these findings the next sections will set forth the sampling methodology for this study.

5.7.1. Target population

Similar to most marketing research projects this thesis explores characteristics or parameters of a population. According to Malhotra (2010:370) a population is

“the aggregate of all the elements, sharing some common set of characteristics that comprise the universe for the purpose of the marketing research problem.”

This thesis explores whether perceived emotions during a video with sponsorship content have a rub-off effect on the sponsor. As the number one player in energy drinks globally, with a 21.4% market share in 2012 (Euromonitor International, 2013) and the focus on sponsorship of (extreme) sports, a video of Red Bull (Best of Red Bull all time, 2013) serves as a trigger. As a privately held company, the financial information of the Red Bull GmbH is limited. However the company reported net sales of 4.9 billion euro in 2012 and 5.2 billion cans sold (Euromonitor International, 2013), purchased mainly by men between 18 and 35 according to O'Brien (2012). Beside this classification, with the aim to avoid an ethical conflict and keep the research as realistic as possible, this thesis does not exclude a gender. Furthermore, keeping the secondary research objective in mind – *“To determine if content marketing in the energy drink industry sector only appeals to a certain audience”* – a gender-exclusive study would be counter-productive. Thus for this study the target population can be broadly defined as male or female between the age of 18 and 35. Due to the fact that the survey was conducted in South Africa it is demographically limited. In the following the sampling frame and consequential sampling technique are presented in more detail.

5.7.2. Sampling procedure

The sampling procedure is the second step in the sampling design process: it includes the determination of a sampling frame and the selection of a sampling technique. The combination of these two sampling variables has an effect on the researcher's ability to generalise findings to the broader population. Hence it is enormously important according to Bruhn (2012) and Malhotra (2010).

5.7.2.1. Sampling frame

Malhotra, Birks and Wills (2012) describe the sampling frame as a representation of the target population. This can be in form of a list or set of directions helping to identify the target audience. In more detail a sampling frame extracts basic information from a sample of the population (e.g. a telephone book, a mailing list purchased from a commercial organization or a map) to identify the target population for the research. Malhotra (2010) recommends defining the sample frame even when the compilation of source material is difficult to embrace. In those cases the directions for identifying the target population should be specified (Malhotra, 2010). Concerning this research only a rough pre-compilation of methods has been established to draw the sample. Thus the target population is specified as a random digit questionnaire procedure on campus of the University of Cape Town, in lectures of the University of Cape Town and randomly selected respondents in Cape Town. In more detail, on campus and in class, students are asked to take part in the survey. The survey outside the campus of the University of Cape Town concentrates on the extreme sports content of the research material, only on (fun/extreme) sport athletes. To ensure that the respondents match with the sampling frame criteria and recognized the keynote of the research material the questionnaire contains filter questions at the beginning and the end.

5.7.2.2. Sampling technique

For the collection of data in the context of primary research, principally sampling techniques are broadly classified as nonprobability and probability sampling techniques (Bruhn, 2012; Malhotra, 2010). Nonprobability sampling is determined by the personal judgement of the researcher, whereas probability sampling units are selected by chance. Hence, nonprobability sampling results in non-generalizable and probability sampling in generalizable findings (Malhotra, 2010). For this thesis operational considerations favour the use of nonprobability sampling. Therefore this research adopts a nonprobability sampling technique, more precisely a sample based on convenience. Before this technique is specified, the difference between nonprobability and probability sampling is presented hereinafter in order to provide a comprehensive understanding.

Since probability sampling units are selected by chance, the probability techniques vary in terms of sampling efficiency (Bruhn, 2012). Every unit in the population has a calculable chance (greater than zero) to be in the random sample. This enables the calculation of potential sampling errors. With an increasing number of randomly selected survey units, the

possibility that the sample conforms with the population increases exponentially. Thus this technique requires a precise definition of the target population and a general specification of the sampling frame. The following standard techniques can be distinguished: simple random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified sampling and cluster/multistage sampling (Malhotra, 2010).

Nonprobability sampling relies on logical considerations and the judgement of the researcher without a randomized mechanism (Bruhn, 2012). Specifically, this means that the researcher can arbitrarily or consciously decide which element to include in the sample (Malhotra, 2010). That is why nonprobability sampling may provide good estimates of population characteristics. However, a selection of elements (non-random) does not allow the estimation of sampling errors. Taking these conditions into account, selection bias is adopted, which limits how much information a sample can provide about a population. So the information about the relationship of sample and population is limited. This limitation makes it difficult to extrapolate from the sample to the population. Nonprobability sampling approaches are: convenience sampling, judgemental sampling, quota sampling and snowball sampling (Malhotra, 2010). The nature of the research at hand, the importance of noncomplying and sampling errors, variability in the population and the operational considerations such as cost and time may help or force the researcher to make a decision between probability and nonprobability sampling techniques (Malhotra, 2010). However, most small research surveys opt for nonprobability sampling due to the higher cost and extended time of probability sampling. According to Malhotra (2010), nonprobability sampling is mostly used in concept tests, packed tests, name tests and copy tests, which usually do not need a projection on the population. Instead, these tests mainly focus on the proportion of the sample that gives various responses or expresses a certain set of attitudes. Just in case the research has to deliver highly accurate estimates of market share or sales volume for the entire market, probability sampling delivers a more precise result. As indicated before, this thesis makes use of a nonprobability convenience sampling technique. Malhotra (2010:377) defines convenience sampling as a

“technique that attempts to obtain a sample of convenient elements. The selection of sampling units is left primarily to the interviewer.”

Convenience samples refer to nonprobability random selection due to easy availability. In this case random selection means that respondents often are selected because they are at

the right time at the right place. According to Malhotra (2010) convenience sampling includes:

- (1) Students, church groups and members of social organisations
- (2) Mall-intercept interviews without qualifying the respondents
- (3) Department stores using charge account lists
- (4) Tear-out questionnaires included in a magazine
- (5) People on the street interviews

Despite the easy accessibility of respondents, convenience sampling has considerable limitations. According to Bruhn (2012) and Malhotra (2010), convenience sampling is not representative for any larger part of population. Further, Malhotra (2010) recommends not to use it for descriptive or causal research. Hence it is more suitable to use it in exploratory research for generating ideas, insights or hypotheses. Despite these limitations, convenience sampling is sometimes used even in large surveys (Malhotra 2010).

The sampling frame of this study and the target population can be described as nonprobability random selection, chosen because of its easy availability.

With that said, the preceding literature review has shown that content marketing is a relatively new application to promote a product/brand/company, and has not been sufficiently academically explored. Thus this thesis focuses on proving a new marketing concept – the combination of video content marketing that aims at a specific emotional response. For these reasons convenience sampling was chosen for this research.

5.7.3. Sample size

Determining the sample size is a complex process, which includes qualitative and quantitative considerations. Special attention must be paid to the nature of research, the number of variables, the nature of analysis, sample size used in similar studies, incidence rates, completion rates and resource constraints (Malhotra, 2010). With all potential incomplete or invalid responses eliminated, the statistical final sample size will then be the result. For this research, the following four variables were taken into closer consideration.

Firstly the research objectives, which test a relatively new marketing concept, were taken into account. Secondly, related to the first aspect, a large number of variables were required in order to prove that emotions during the video influence the reputation of the sponsor, and to

answer the question whether these emotions are a moderating variable. Thirdly, since this study partially depends on the sponsorship response framework by Speed and Thompson's (2000), their sample size may help to determine the sample size for this research. In their study *Determinates of Sports Sponsorship Response* (2000), Speed and Thompson underpin their framework with a 195-loaded sample size. Finally, one important consideration is that due to the complex research material (content marketing video) and the resulting complex interview method, resources were constrained.

The statistic software SPSS as well as SAS allow the determination of indirect effects in simple mediation models (Preacher and Hayes, 2004; Preacher, Rucker and Hayes, 2007). According to Preacher and Hayes (2004) and Preacher, Rucker and Hayes (2007), one of the assumptions necessary to estimate indirect effects is a large sample size. The statistical program SmartPLS may underpin the argument of a large sample size. Although SmartPLS allows surveys with sample sizes below one hundred and compared to Covariance Based Methods (CBM) (which multiplies the parameters or variables with ten to determine the sample size), SmartPLS determines the sample size by only multiplying the indicator that is most likely with ten. However, when it comes to the proof of moderated mediation hypotheses, a larger sample size is required. In order to prove the moderation with SmartPLS for this thesis, at least 312 respondents are required (Weiber and Mülhauß, 2014). The relevant statistical programs are discussed in the section statistical analysis (5.9). Generally it became clear that for statistical purposes, a bigger sample size is required.

The video content in this survey makes this a complex undertaking. However, the sampling technique (convenience sampling) allows collecting data in a classroom atmosphere, which decreases the number of non-completed questionnaires (Bruhn, 2012; Malhotra, 2010). Expecting a low error rate and aiming for a comprehensive research, the sample size for this thesis was set on 600 respondents. Before the data collection and preparation methods are discussed in more detail the sampling process is discussed in the following.

5.7.4. Implementation of sampling process

This section includes an outline of the sampling design decisions with respect to the group of population, sampling frame, sampling unit, sampling technique and sample size:

- (1) **Target population:** Male and female from 18 and 35 years.
- (2) **Sampling Frame:** Random-digit questionnaire procedure on campus, class and randomly.
- (3) **Sampling technique:** Convenience sampling. The researcher chose the target population. Respondents were selected according to their availability.
- (4) **Sample Size:** 600
- (5) **Implementation:** Randomly bringing together a group of respondents by asking them in person to take part in a 10-minute questionnaire. In a classroom atmosphere the research content (content marketing video) is presented to the respondents about which they complete a questionnaire in the following. They are informed that participation is voluntary and that nobody has to fill out the questionnaire.

The next section addresses the data collection and preparation procedures.

5.8. DATA COLLECTION AND PREPARATION

The data collection, and as a consequence thereof, the data preparation procedure, are fundamental steps in a survey. Small mistakes at this stage of the survey can have enormous repercussions in the results. As mentioned in section 5.6.3 (Pre-test questionnaire considerations), the questionnaire was tested for this reason beforehand.

However, data collection and preparation procedures have to be implemented with particular caution (Mazzochi, 2008) and thus are discussed more precisely in the following.

5.8.1. Data collection

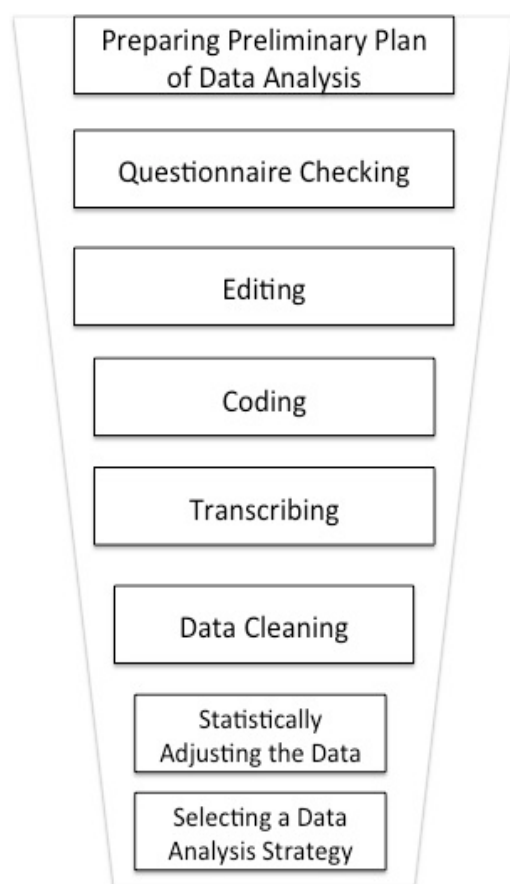
The data collection for this study took place mainly at the University of Cape Town: in lectures of the School of Management Studies, outside on the upper campus of the University of Cape Town and at different spots where extreme sports are performed (beaches, mountain, etc.). The timeframe for the data collection was set from the 01 January 2015 until the 08 March 2015.

Beside the ethical clearance from the Commerce Faculty Ethics in Research Committee, this research required extra clearance to include UCT students (DSA100). Both these documents

are attached in Appendix A. In line with the requirements, people were asked in classes, on campus and at various spots to participate in the research. This “hooking process” explicitly included information about the approximate time required to take part in the survey, about the voluntary nature of participation, and about the strict confidentiality of the evaluated data. For reasons of effectiveness, participants were always interviewed in groups. The relevant video content was then shown to the participants and they subsequently filled out the questionnaire.

5.8.2. Data preparation

According to Malhotra (2010), the data preparation process is guided by the preliminary considerations of section 5.6 (Questionnaire design). In order to ensure a clean data-



preparation, this thesis followed the data preparation process of Malhotra (2010), presented below in Figure 5.2.

The first application of this process, the questionnaire test, was simplified by the pre-test questionnaire. Questions which were not easily understood during this test were eliminated or changed to provide a better understanding and clearer answers. Thus this pre-test process was directly connected with editing, with the objective of decreasing fundamental mistakes in data collection and increasing the accuracy of the collected data.

Figure 5.2: Data preparation process

Source: Adopted from Malhotra (2010)

The answers of the actual questionnaires were checked on incompleteness, patterns of responses, small variance, and qualification for this survey. When it comes to coding and transcribing, the questionnaire was already pre-coded for each question and only had to be typed into a Microsoft Excel document to provide a starting base data set.

The data cleaning process combined consistency checks and the treatment of missing responses. With the help of consistency checks, data that was out of range, logically inconsistent and had extreme values could be identified and eliminated. Furthermore, every survey contains some questionnaires which not complete. Malhotra (2010) and Mazzochi (2008) provide two options for missing responses. The objective of these two options is to avoid losing data. The first approach substitutes the missing response with a neutral value. The second approach substitutes the missing response with an imputed response. How this thesis deals with those outliers is discussed in the following chapter.

The statistical adjustment of the data collected is not always necessary but it can enhance the quality of the analysis (Malhotra, 2010). In weighting for example a “weight” is assigned to each case or respondent in the database and reflects its importance relative to other cases/respondents. With the help of variable respecification, data can be modified or transformed into new variables in order to meet the study’s objectives. Scale transformation is another option, in which scale values can be manipulated to ensure comparability with other scales in order to adapt data for analysis. These adjusting strategies are further discussed in the next chapter. The data analysis strategy employed in this study is discussed in the next section.

5.9. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

When it comes to this thesis’ statistical analysis – to evaluate and interpret the data set – the statistical procedures can be divided into two major categories: descriptive and inferential statistics. The objective of descriptive statistics is to outline data in tables, figures and graphics for better understanding. This is especially useful for big data sets, since they cannot be easily ascertained. The objective of inferential statistics is to make predictions or inferences about a population by observations and analyses of a sample. How this thesis makes use of these two statistical applications is discussed further on.

5.9.1. Descriptive statistics

A key characteristic of descriptive statistics is that it merely describes the data set by simplifying it. Inferential statistics on the contrary aim at predictions or inferences (Pallant, 2013). This can be done by calculating simple parameters such as the mean and the calculation of complex parameters, for example the standard deviation or the correlation coefficient (Quatember, 2010). The descriptive results for this study were obtained with the help of Microsoft

Excel and the software SPSS. The following descriptive statistic applications were used to exemplify the data: Firstly, a factor analysis was used in the pre-test phase to ensure that every single question of the questionnaire is well understood by the respondents. Filter questions were used on the actual raw research sample in order to verify if the respondent perceived the sponsor and if the respondent fit into the target age group. Finally the main construct (sponsorship framework) was tested on its mean and standard deviation to visualize the main descriptive tendencies. The inferential method used to indirectly examine the primary and secondary objectives of this thesis and directly verify the hypotheses is discussed hereinafter.

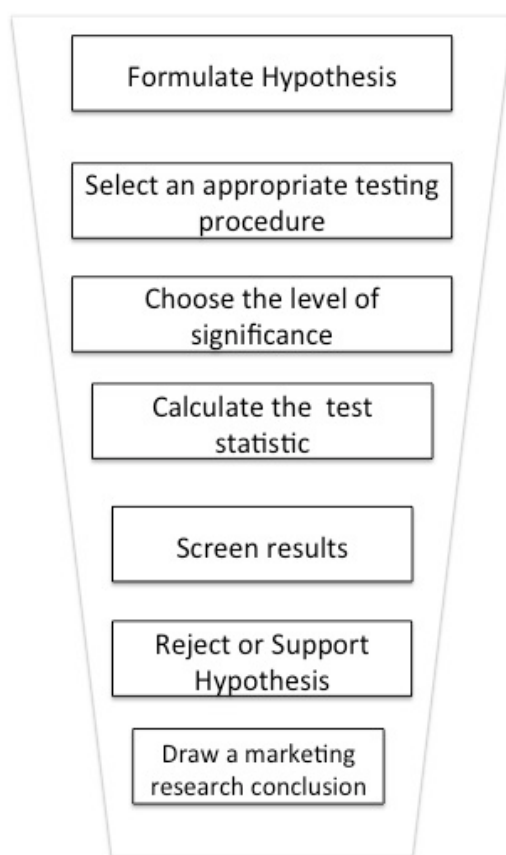


Figure 5.3: General procedure for hypothesis testing. Source: Adopted from Malhotra (2010)

In order to test if the content of the statement is applicable, Malhotra (2010:490) developed “a general procedure for hypothesis testing.” According to Malhotra (2010), the following 8 steps, illustrated in Figure 5.3 are required to verify a hypothesis.

The operationalisation of the hypotheses is discussed in more detail in the following. Since the sponsorship construct and the moderation construct contain hypotheses, two statistical

5.9.2. Inferential statistics

Inferential statistical methods allow the estimation of parameters with which hypotheses can be statistically verified (Toutenburg, 2008). As an extension of the descriptive statistics, which exemplify the tendencies of the sample dataset, inferential statistics make predictions concerning the population. Simply put, inferential statistics gross up the sample’s outcome in order to project the results on the population. These predictions are operationalized through hypotheses, an expected logical statement for a phenomenon (Schwarze, 2013).

applications were required for the operationalisation. Firstly a suitable statistical analysis technique to operationalize the hypotheses is exemplified concerning the sponsorship construct. Subsequently, the hypotheses are operationalized regarding the moderation construct with a suitable statistical analysis technique. Finally the conclusion of this chapter sums up important features and introduces the following chapter 6.

5.9.2.1. Visualisation of sponsorship to response model

When it comes to determination of a suitable statistical analysis technique for the sponsorship construct, the following characteristics have to be taken into account. The theoretical sponsorship emotions framework (Figure 5.1) has a complex structure. More precisely, the structure consists of 6 independent variables affecting 3 dependent variables resulting in 18 combinations. Thus multiple indicators are required to encompass the totality of the construct. Furthermore, the main objective of this research is the illumination of a relatively new marketing technique and not the verification of an already existing technique. In this context the compliance of general scientific research requirements is of great importance. More specifically, the balanced interaction between constructs and measures during the model development, particularly the construct verification (Steenkamp and Baumgartner, 2000). In conformity with Steenkamp and Baumgartner (2000) these assumptions are indicative for the application of the structural equation modelling (hereinafter referred to as SEM).

The SEM is defined by Malhotra (2010:723) as a

“procedure for estimating a series of dependence relationships among a set of concepts or constructs represented by multiple measured variables and incorporated into an integrated model.”

Hair *et al.* (2013) distinguish between two main types of SEM. The covariance-based SEM (CB-SEM), which enables the validation of theories; and the partial least squares SEM (hereinafter referred to as PLS-SEM), which enables the development of theories. The PLS-SEM approach was chosen for this research, as its aim is to describe a recent development in marketing. In line with this decision, Steenkamp and Baumgartner (2000) describe the PLS-SEM in the developing context as the most useful theory testing.

When it comes to the application of PLS-SEM, Malhotra (2010) underlines the importance of a basic theory, illustrating the relationships building the model. This was implemented with the help of a path model (diagram) including the following four model elements: Indicator

variables, factor variables, measurement model and structural model (Malhotra, 2010; Hair *et al.*, 2013). In order to illustrate the relationships for the sponsorship construct, firstly the two model-building variables and subsequently the model-analysing measures are visualized in Figure 5.4 and discussed in more detail in the following.

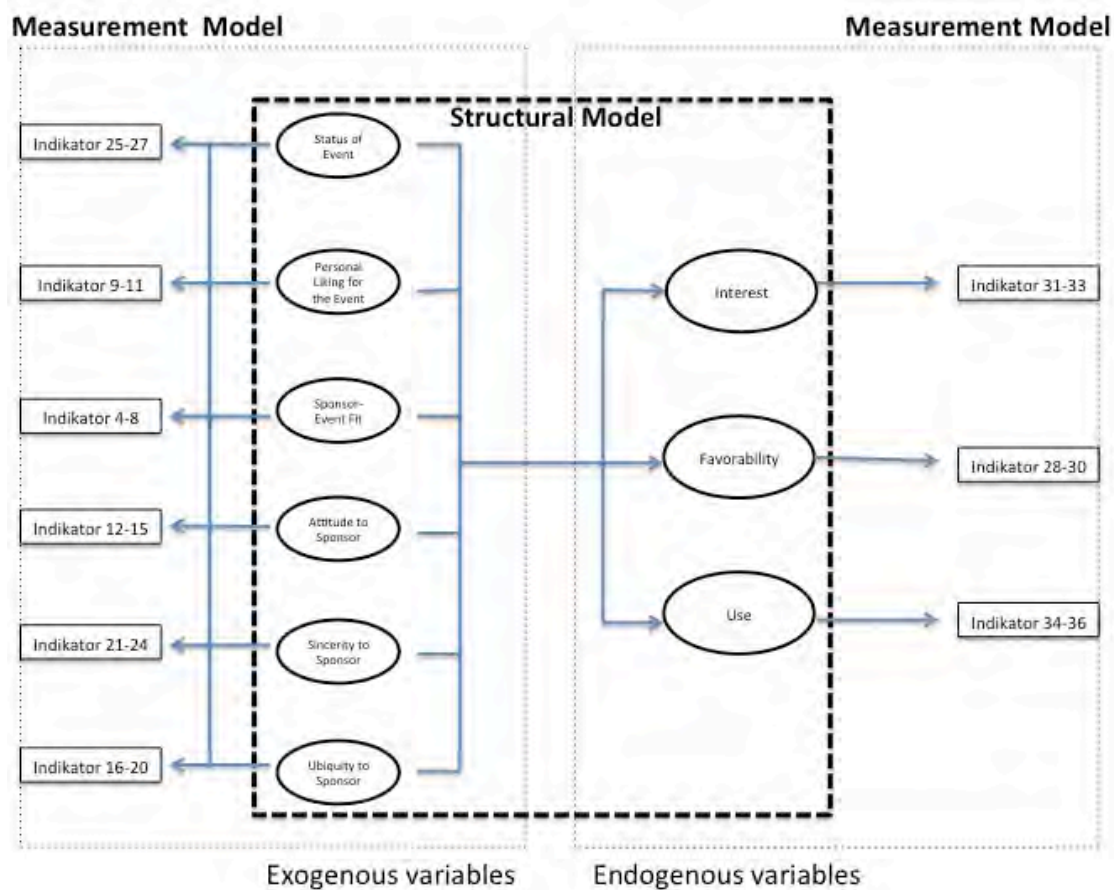


Figure 5.4: Measurement vs. structural model in the sponsorship construct

Source: Adopted from Wong (2013)

The indicator/item variables of the construct also known as observed, measured or manifest variables provide the input for every single factor variable (Hair *et al.*, 2013). These variables are visualized in the path model as rectangles. The synopsis of related indicator variables result in a construct (factor variable, latent variable). The factor variables or latent variables are visualized through circles or ovals. The relationship between indicator variables and latent variables as well as the relationship among latent variables is shown through arrows (Hair *et al.*, 2013). When it comes to the consistency of a PLS path model, Hair *et al.* (2013) distinguish between a measurement and a structural model in PLS-SEM. The structural model also known as inner model, exemplifies the relationships between the latent variables. These relationships visually represent the 6 hypotheses concerning the sponsorship con-

struct. The structural analysis tactics, enabling the verification of the sponsorship hypotheses are discussed later on.

The measurement model also known as outer model, verifies the consistency of the relationship between indicator variables and latent variables (constructs). Hair *et al.* (2013) subdivide the measurement model into the exogenous latent variables, which explain other constructs in the model, and the endogenous latent variables, which are being explained in the model. The measurement methods, which test the validity of the measurement model, will be further described in the following section.

5.9.2.2. Operationalisation

When it comes to PLS-SEM, which concentrates on the analysis of variance, PLS-Graph, VisualPLS, SmartPLS and WarpPLS are common software packages used for operationalisation purposes. The software SmartPLS has become a popular tool in marketing research (Weiber and Mülhhaus, 2014). This may be underpinned with 2277 citations listed in Google Scholar, a bibliographic database providing academic literature (Google Scholar, 2015). Wong (2013) recommends the use of SmartPLS software due to the free availability of the student version, a user-friendly interface and a free online forum. Following the theoretical subdivision concerning the PLS-SEM into measurement and structural models, SmartPLS enables the creation of a path model diagram. Further it provides the results for a deeper examination of the measurement and structural model (Wong, 2013). Malhotra (2010) says that the validity of the measurement model is a deal-breaker for the structural model. Thus the next section discusses the requirements for the measurement model first and then the requirements for the structural model.

5.9.2.3. Measurement model

Wong (2013) introduces two measurement scales. He distinguishes between the formative and the reflective scales (Wong, 2013). The formative measurement scale verifies the latent variables, which are not interchangeable. In contrast to that, reflective measurement scales are highly correlated and interchangeable (Wong, 2013). The latent variables in this research consist of at least 3 indicator variables, which are highly correlated and interchangeable. Thus a reflective measurement scale was required to verify the measurement model. In terms of reflective measurement scales, Haenlein and Kaplan (2004), Petter, Straub and Rai (2007), Hair *et al.* (2013) and Wong (2013) recommend examining the reliability and validity.

Malhotra (2010) specifically recommends the assessment of the tension metric's goodness-of-fit, internal consistency reliability and evidence of construct validity. In order to prove construct validity, the convergent and discriminant validity will be analysed (Malhotra, 2010). In the following, the requirements for these four measures will be explored.

The goodness-of-fit measure indicates how good a statistical model can explain a sum of observations (Malhotra, 2010). The SmartPLS software does not provide the goodness-of-fit measure though (Henseler and Sarstedt, 2013). In comparison, the SmartPLS software covers the fit of a statistical model by calculating the coefficient of determination (R^2). The coefficient of determination indicates how well the sample data fit the model (Wong, 2013). Concerning the conceptual framework above (Figure 5.4), the coefficient of determination will explain the endogenous variable variance with the help of the exogenous latent variables (Wong, 2013). The permissible value range for the coefficient of determination is between 0 and 1. According to Wong (2013), the limit of tolerance for the coefficient of determination is at 0.25 and should not be below that level. The requirements for the internal consistency reliability are discussed hereinafter.

Internal consistency reliability is defined by Malhotra (2010:319) as

“an approach for assessing the internal consistency of the set of items when several items are summated in order to form a total score for the scale.”

According Malhotra (2010), Cornbach's alpha, also known as the coefficient alpha, and composite reliability are suitable measures to review internal consistency reliability. The coefficient alpha as well as the composite reliability values may be between 0 and 1. Malhotra (2010) determines the limit of tolerance for satisfactory internal consistency reliability for the coefficient alpha at 0.6 and composite reliability at 0.7. In line with Malhotra (2010), Wong (2013) determines it between 0.6 and 0.7, specifically when using the software SmartPLS.

The convergent validity is an important component for the determination of the construct validity (Malhotra, 2010). In combination with the discriminant validity, these two components enable the verification of construct validity in the SmartPLS context (Wong, 2013). Convergent validity reviews the degree of affinity between measures that are, theoretically, supposed to be related (Peter, 1981). The convergent validity is operationalized by the composite reliability and the average variance extracted (hereinafter referred to as AVE). Concerning the composite reliability, the limit of tolerance does not change and stays at 0.7. Accord-

ing to Bagozzi and Yi (1988), the AVE is a measure that describes how well a single latent variable explains the indicator variables and thus is perfectly suitable to operationalize convergent validity. In that respect Bagozzi and Yi (1988) insist that the values should be at least 0.5 or higher. In case of lower values than 0.5, the variance is greater due to measurement error than the variance due to the construct and thus highly questionable (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988). Which values are important to operationalize the discriminant validity is considered hereinafter.

Discriminant validity is SmartPLS's second requirement for construct validity (Wong, 2013). It examines the differences between the different constructs (Malhotra, 2010). In order to substantiate discriminant validity, it is necessary to assure that there are no cross loadings (Malhotra, 2010). In more detail, cross loadings show how strongly every single indicator loads on other latent variables. Since PLS-SEM assumes that every single group of indicators only explains one latent variable, this criterion should be excluded in order to demonstrate discriminant validity (Malhotra, 2010). The software SmartPLS delivers a cross correlation tableau to verify this criterion. A further measure to substantiate discriminant validity is the Fornell-Lacker criterion. This criterion maintains that the AVE of a latent variable and the respective indicator variables should be higher than with any other construct within the model to prove discriminant validity (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). In order to verify this theory, Fornell and Larcker (1981) advise that the diagonal square root of AVE be examined. More precisely, every single latent variable's square root of AVE should have higher values than latent variables themselves (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Wong, 2013).

Following the verifiability of these four measures operationalizing the measurement model with the SmartPLS program, the operationalisation of the structural model is examined in more detail below.

5.9.2.4. Structural model

The structural model, also known as inner model, examines the relationships between the latent variables (Wong, 2013). The structural model of this study is complex. This is because the sponsorship and the moderation construct encounter each other (Figure 5.5). In order to elucidate the structural model, the operationalisation of the sponsorship construct shall be examined first, followed by the operationalisation of the moderation construct.

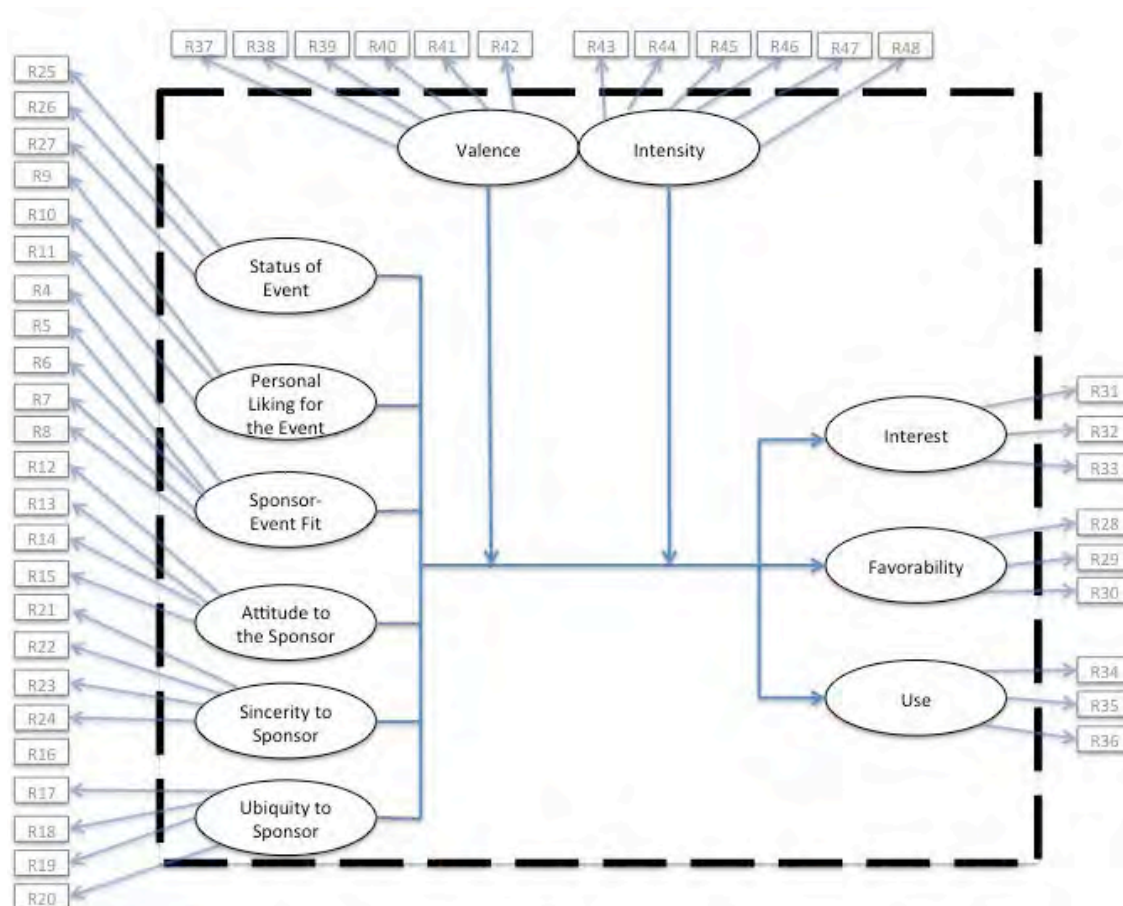


Figure 5.5: Structural model

Source: Adopted from Wong (2013)

For the structural sponsorship to response model, the respective latent variables enable the examination of the relationship among themselves. In more detail: the structural relationships represent the 6 proposed sponsorship hypotheses visually with the help of arrows (Wong, 2013). According to Wong (2013) and Hair *et al.* (2013), the SmartPLS software is suitable in order to explore the PLS-SEM. Consequently, the SmartPLS software was applied in order to verify the proposed hypotheses.

When it comes to structural analysis, the software SmartPLS provides the coefficient of determination (R^2), t-test, p-values and beta coefficients (β), which allow the verification of the hypotheses and a further interpretation (Henseler, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2012; Wong, 2013). Therefore, these four applications are examined in the following. The actual results and respective interpretation for this research are provided in chapter six.

For the assessment of the structural model, Malhotra (2010) suggests a model fit, which verifies that the (indicating) measuring model fit does not exceed the structural model fit. Commonly the model fit is operationalized with the goodness-of-fit index. The SmartPLS software,

however, does not provide the goodness-of-fit measure (Henseler and Sarstedt, 2013). As a solution, the software SmartPLS provides the coefficient of determination (R^2), which indicates how well the sample data fit the model (Wong, 2013; Hair et al., 2013). The coefficient of determination has a permissible value range of between 0 and 1. The limit of tolerance here is comparatively lower because any research concentrating on predicting human behaviour typically has coefficients of determination lower than 50%. Values lower than 25%, however, are a sign for slight fit between sample data and model (Chin, Marcolin and Newsted 2003; Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics 2009; Wong, 2013).

According to Wong (2013), the software SmartPLS enables the calculation of the t-test through the resampling method bootstrapping. The t-test is a key figure to evaluate statistical tests in order to verify hypotheses (Hair *et al.*, 2013). The t-test based on the Student's t-distribution, tests whether the null hypothesis is supported (Malhotra, 2010). According to Wong (2013), the null hypothesis is supported when the t-statistic is lower than 1.96 at a significance level of 0.05. Vice versa the alternative hypothesis is supported in case the t-statistic is higher than 1.96 at a significance level of 0.05.

Similar to the t-test, the p-value also enables the verification of hypotheses. In contrast to the t-test, the p-value is a probability and therefore assumes values between zero and one. It indicates the possibility for sampling results presuming the null hypothesis is true (Malhotra, 2010). Thus the p-value indicates how extreme the result is; more precisely, the smaller the p-value, the more the result speaks against the null hypothesis. Hair *et al.* (2013) instruct that the p-value should not exceed 0.05 for a SmartPLS interpretation.

The interpretation of the beta coefficient only makes sense if the hypothesis is significant (Pallant, 2013). Further, it is important to look at the standardized beta coefficient (β) when interpreting different variables. Following Pallant (2013), the standardized values all have been transformed to an equivalent scale in order to compare them. In case of significance, the beta coefficient measures how strongly each predictor/exogenous variable (independent) influences the criterion/endogenous variable (dependent). More precisely, this means in case of a low β -value, the influence of the exogenous variable on the endogenous variable is marginal. Conversely in case of a high β -value, the influence of the exogenous variable on the endogenous variable is strong (De Veaux, Velleman and Bock, 2011). The results of these four applications and how they are interpreted is discussed in the following chapters six and seven.

5.9.2.5. Moderation model

The SmartPLS software allows the operationalisation of moderation. Considering the complexity of the inner moderation model of this thesis (36 moderation effects), the evaluation with the software SmartPLS leads to complications. Since the SmartPLS software does not allow 36 moderation paths at once (Nitzl, 2010; Henseler and Fassott, 2010). Every single model had to be tested separately. With the intention to simplify the verification of moderation, Hayes (2015) wrote a macro for the statistic software SPSS named PROCESS. According to Field (2013), the macro PROCESS, *is the best way* to approach moderation. Under-use of PROCESS, all 36 models (H7a-H7o and H8a-H8o) were tested for significance. Subsequently the significant results were further interpreted. Thus this process is subdivided into the verification and interpretation of moderation.

According to Field (2013), the most important value to prove significant interaction (indicator for moderation) is the p-value of interaction. The p-value of interaction examines whether there is a potential moderation on the relationship between predictor/exogenous variable (independent) and outcome/endogenous variable (dependent) (Field, 2013). The limit of tolerance of the p-value is commonly set at 0.05 and should not be exceeded in order to prove significant moderation (Hayes, 2013). Accordingly the p-value is the criterion for exclusion when it comes to the verification of the hypothesized moderation (Field, 2013). Further the coefficient of determination (R^2) examines with which percentage the predictor explains the variance of the moderator (Field, 2013). In case of significance, the unstandardized beta coefficient (b) supports further interpretation. Specifically the unstandardized beta coefficient (b) examines the intensity of the relationship between predictor and moderator. This means, a negative beta coefficient (b) indicates a negative relationship. In this event, an increase of the predictor would cause a decrease of the moderator intensity and vice versa (Field, 2013). In turn a positive beta coefficient (b) indicates a positive relationship between predictor and moderator and so, for example, an increase of one value leads to an increase of the other (Field, 2013).

For the interpretation of the interaction (moderation effect), Field (2013) advises to take a closer look at the tableau conditional effect of X (predictor) on Y (outcome) at values of the moderator. To be more specific, the slopes for X (predictor) predicting the output at each level of the moderator are presented in this tableau. According to Field (2013), it is crucial to interpret the unstandardized coefficient (b) in combination with the p-value. How the results

for this research are interpreted with the help of the simple slopes tableau is described in chapter 6 (Results). The following conclusion sums this chapter up and introduces chapter 6.

5.10. CONCLUSION

This chapter outlined the theoretical methods that were used to substantiate this study. Firstly the main objectives and the associated research hypotheses were presented in order to connect the literature review with the objective of his research. This was supported with a graphic of the conceptual framework, which visualised the intention of the research. Subsequently research instruments were discussed and determined to provide the right components for an effective measurement. After that, the questionnaire design for all four sections of the questionnaire was discussed and the final questionnaire presented. The sampling section worked out sampling requirements and determined the target population, the sampling frame, sampling technique, the sample size and the execution procedure for this study. In order to illuminate the process of data collection and preparation, the underlying techniques were discussed subsequently. The statistical evaluation was presented in great detail, due to the combination of two theoretical and in practice distinguishing concepts. The following chapter presents and analyses the results of this study.

6. Chapter Six: Results

6.1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter reports the results of this study. More precisely it offers the statistical results of the data collected. In order to describe the subsequent statistical applications, the hypotheses are merged with the theoretical framework. Subsequently the fieldwork procedure is reported. Along with the fieldwork report, the characteristics of the sample and responses are presented. These are followed by a discussion of the descriptive and inferential statistical analysis. The chapter closes with a summary of the results and highlights important findings of this research.

6.2. ARTICULATION OF HYPOTHESES AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In the course of this chapter the hypotheses are tested. Considering the complex theoretical framework (Figure 6.1) of this research, the hypotheses are consolidated to facilitate a logical structure to report the results.

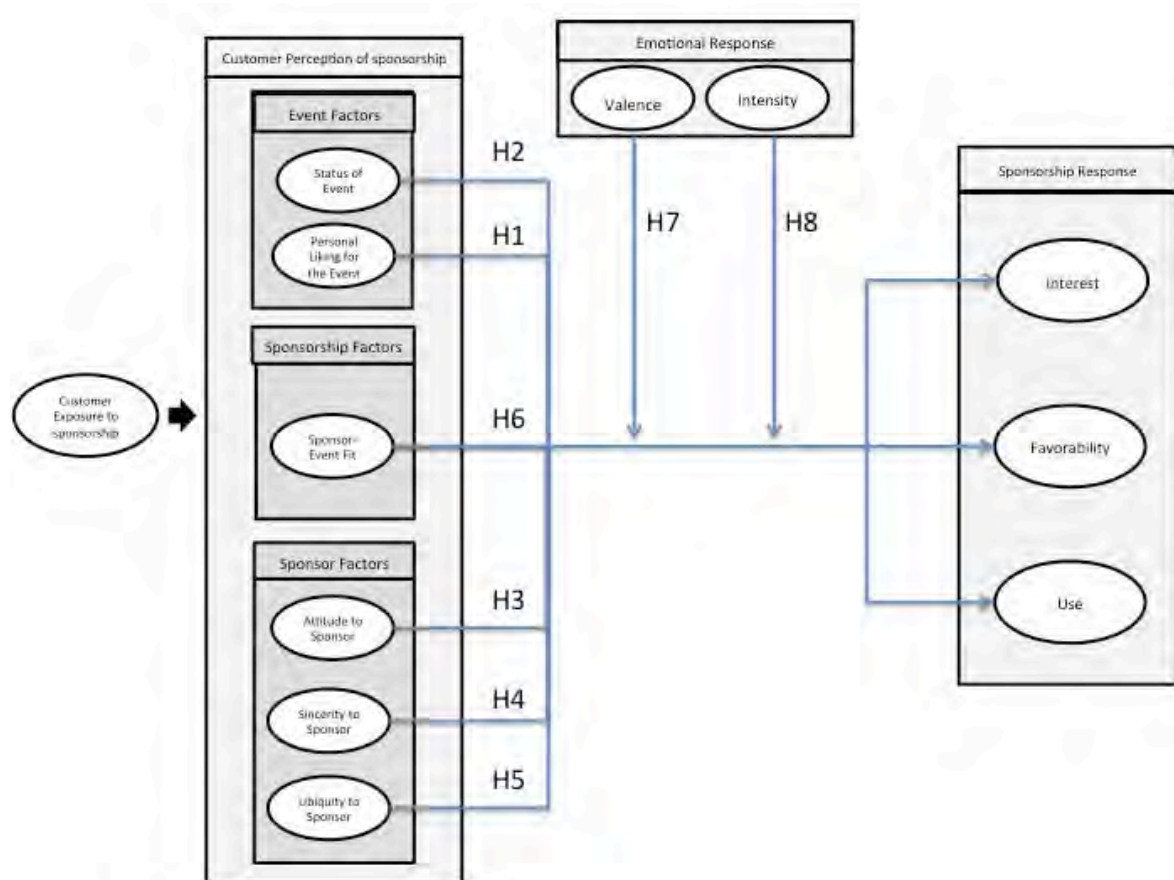


Figure 6.1 Sponsorship emotions framework

Source: Adopted from Speed and Thompson (2000) and Bal *et al.* (2008)

Firstly the sponsorship model, containing hypotheses 1 to 6 is discussed in more detail. Secondly, the emotion model, containing the hypotheses 7 to 8 is reviewed. The survey asked respondents to complete a questionnaire after being exposed to a Red Bull video (Best of Red Bull all the time, 2013) with strong content marketing character. In a nutshell, this video illustrates which extreme sports Red Bull is sponsoring and as previously described (5.2 Intentions p. 98) the video focus on the extreme sports as opposed to the brand. In order to examine whether a customer's exposure to content marketing influences the sponsorship response, the hypothesis 1 to 6 are divided into the following three underlying factors:

- Event Factors:
 - Status of the Event (H2) – abbreviated as SOE
 - Personal liking for the Event (H1)- abbreviated as PLE
- Sponsorship Factors:
 - Sponsor event fit (H6) – abbreviated as SPF
- Sponsor Factors:
 - Attitude to Sponsor (H3) – abbreviated as ATS
 - Sincerity to Sponsor (H4) – abbreviated as STS
 - Ubiquity to Sponsor (H5) – abbreviated as UTS.

Starting with the event factors, i.e. the status of the event, indirectly influences the respondents. Examples are Formula-1, with its high reputation in motorsports, or the Olympics, with their international character (Stipp and Schiavone, 1996). Therefore the current study hypothesised a positive relationship between the perceived status of a Red Bull event and the respondents' perception of the sponsor.

Another event factor is the personal liking for the event. The factor personal liking, particularly for a specific team, sport or location, may positively influence the sponsors' image (D'Astous and Bitz, 1995). On this basis it was hypothesised that the personal liking for Red Bull events positively influences the respondent's image of the sponsor.

Concerning the sponsorship factor, sponsorship researchers underline the importance of the perception of congruence between sponsor and event. This is described as sponsor-event-link/fit (Otker and Hayes, 1987; Crimmins and Horn, 1996; Dean, 2002). A good example for sponsor-event fit is the tyre manufacture Bridgestone, which sponsored Formula-1 sport from 1997 until 2010 (Bridgestone, 2010). Accordingly it was hypothesized that the perceived

sponsor-event fit of Red Bulls' commitment in extreme sports influences the respondents' perception of the sponsor's response to the needs of the consumer.

When it comes to the sponsor factors, the perceived reputation of the sponsoring company also influences the sponsorship response (Speed and Thompson 2000). Therefore it was hypothesized that the consumer's attitude towards Red Bull has an effect on the response to their sponsorship. It was also assumed that if the consumers perceive Red Bull as sincere company, the response to its sponsorship would be positively influenced as well.

Finally it was hypothesized that if Red Bull is perceived as very ubiquitous, the sponsorship response will be negative. These deliberations have led to the following six hypotheses to consider the customers' perception of the sponsorship:

Hypothesis 1:

There is a positive relationship between the consumers' personal liking of the event and the consumers' response in terms of Interest (H1a), Favourability (H1b) and Use (H1c).

Hypothesis 2:

There is a positive relationship between the perceived status of the event and the consumers' response in terms of Interest (H2a), Favourability (H2b) and Use (H2c).

Hypothesis 3:

There is a positive relationship between the consumers' attitude towards the sponsor and the consumers' response in terms of Interest (H3a), Favourability (H3b) and Use (H3c).

Hypothesis 4:

There is a positive relationship between the consumers' perception of the sincerity of the sponsor and the consumers' response in terms of Interest (H4a), Favourability (H4) and Use (H4c).

Hypothesis 5:

There is a negative relationship between a high-perceived ubiquity of the sponsor and the consumers' response in terms of Interest (H5a), Favourability (H5b) and Use (H5c).

Hypothesis 6:

There is a positive relationship between the perceived sponsor-event fit and the consumers' response in terms of Interest (H6a), Favourability (H6b) and Use (H6c).

The conceptual model (Figure 6.1) also depicts that a customer's perception of a sponsor may be moderated by the emotions evoked by the sponsorship. More precisely these hy-

potheses aim to test if valence of the emotion and intensity of the emotion moderates the effect on the customers' perception of the sponsors response. Therefore the following two hypotheses could be constructed:

Hypothesis 7:

Valence of emotion moderates the relationship between:

- H7a: Status of the event and Interest for the sponsor.
- H7b: Status of the event and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H7c: Status of the event and Use of the product.
- H7d: Personal liking for the event and Interest for the sponsor.
- H7e: Personal liking for the event and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H7f: Personal liking for the event and Use of the product.
- H7g: Attitude to sponsor and Interest for the sponsor.
- H7h: Attitude to sponsor and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H7i: Attitude to sponsor and Use of the product.
- H7j: Sincerity of sponsor and Interest for the sponsor.
- H7k: Sincerity of sponsor and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H7l: Sincerity of sponsor and Use of the product.
- H7m: Ubiquity of sponsor and Interest for the sponsor.
- H7n: Ubiquity of sponsor and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H7o: Ubiquity of sponsor and Use of the product.

Hypothesis 8:

Intensity of emotion moderates the relationship between:

- H8a: Status of the event and Interest for the sponsor.
- H8b: Status of the event and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H8c: Status of the event and Use of the product.
- H8d: Personal liking for the event and Interest for the sponsor.
- H8e: Personal liking for the event and Favourability for the sponsor.

- H8f: Personal liking for the event and Use of the product.
- H8g: Attitude to sponsor and Interest for the sponsor.
- H8h: Attitude to sponsor and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H8i: Attitude to sponsor and Use of the product.
- H8j: Sincerity of sponsor and Interest for the sponsor.
- H8k: Sincerity of sponsor and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H8l: Sincerity of sponsor and Use of the product.
- H8m: Ubiquity of sponsor and Interest for the sponsor.
- H8n: Ubiquity of sponsor and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H8o: Ubiquity of sponsor and Use of the product.

The following section presents the fieldwork report, which outlines the survey process in order to illustrate the implementation of the methodology described in chapter 5. Subsequently the evaluation of the survey, which enables the validation of the hypotheses, is examined in more detail.

6.3. FIELDWORK REPORT

Before any fieldwork may be conducted at UCT, the ethical requirements must be clarified. For any research by the Faculty of Commerce, the Commerce Faculty Ethics in Research Committee reviews the planned research concerning ethical acceptability. In case students of the UCT are supposed to be among the respondents, an additional clearance requirement (DSA 100) has to be met before the planned research can go ahead. Both these requirements were met and the supporting documents are included in Appendix A.

The data was collected in undergraduate commerce classes, at the upper campus of the UCT and at places around Cape Town. The respondents were informed that participation is voluntary, takes approximately 10 minutes and all data are treated confidential. The participants were then shown a Red Bull video with high content marketing character (Best of Red Bull all the time, 2013). Afterwards the participants were asked to complete the questionnaire. The survey period, excluding the pre-test survey, extended from 01 January 2015 until 08 March 2015. During this period the data was cleaned and transferred into digital form using Microsoft Excel.

6.4. SAMPLE SIZE AND RESPONSE RATE

According to the sample size determined in the methodology outlined for this study, the planned sample size was 600. The final sample size for this research amounted to 605. Of these 605 questionnaires 557 were valid and used for statistical data analysis. Of the 48 defective questionnaires, 39 had not been completed and 9 did not fit the target group: the respondents were either too young or too old. Apart from these 48 defective questionnaires, 92.06% of respondents completed the questionnaire impeccably and fit into the target group. Of 557 respondents 326 (59%) were male and 231 (41%) female.

When it comes to the filter question that aimed at finding out whether the respondents recognised the sponsor in the video, 96.41% recognised Red Bull as the sponsor. This means, the majority of the respondents passed the first filter question. The 3.59% respondents that did not recognise the sponsor were not excluded due they not fully disagreed to the filter question. Furthermore, 100% of the respondents fit into the target group, which is to say they are over 18 and less than 39 years old. Thus, all the 557 responses are suitable for further research. Table 6.1 sums up the sampling results. When it comes to statistical analysis, it is common to distinguish between descriptive and inferential statistics (Blaikie, 2003). With the help of descriptive statistical analysis, data is described, processed and combined in an appropriate manner. The inferential statistic goes one step further and extrapolates from the sample to the entire population (Blaikie, 2003). In order to describe, process and combine the data of this study, the descriptive statistical analysis of the sponsorship construct is presented in the following.

Table 6.1: Sampling results

	N	%
Total Sample Size	605	100.00
Adjusted Sample Size	557	92.06
Incomplete Responses	39	6.44
Outside the target group	9	1.49
Male	326	58.53
Female	231	41.47

6.5. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

When it comes to the descriptive statistical analysis of the sample data, the examination is subdivided in consequence of two different survey scales. To operationalize the sponsorship

to response model (H1-H6), a 7-point Likert-type scale was used on the one hand. On the other hand, to operationalize the moderation model (H7-H8) a 7-point semantic differential scale was used. Accordingly, the descriptive results of the sponsorship to response model are examined first. Subsequently the descriptive results of the moderation model are reviewed.

6.5.1. Descriptive results of sponsorship to response model

All nine constructs in the sponsorship to response model were measured with a 7-point Likert-type scale. Respondents were asked to express their level of agreement on intervals, including entirely agree, mostly agree, mildly agree, neutral, mildly disagree, mostly disagree, and entirely disagree. The items were coded from 1 entirely agree to 7 entirely disagree. According to Blaikie (2003), Likert-type scales are ordinal scales. Ordinal scales allow sorting of the data but do not allow differentiating between the single items. However according to Blaikie (2003), it has become common to treat this scale like an interval measurement. Interval scales allow the differentiation between the single items, which means for the Likert-type scales that differences in rank and distance between values can be measured (Toutenburg and Heumann, 2009). According to Toutenburg and Heumann (2009), the mean and the standard deviation are two important statistical applications when it comes to the descriptive evaluation of interval scales. The mean – not to be confused with the mode or median – is the statistical parameter for determining the average level, respectively the average position of the empirical distribution of a feature (Rönz and Strohe, 1994). The standard deviation (SD) is a measure of the dispersion of the value of a random variable around its expected value (Rönz and Strohe, 1994). According to Pallant (2013) the statistic software SPSS is a suitable application to examine descriptive data. Thus the mean and SD were analysed with the statistic software SPSS. The means and standard deviations of the 557 respondents are presented in Appendix C. The subsequent sections will help to interpret the content of Appendix C further.

6.5.1.1. Attitude to the company

The attitude towards the company (Red Bull) was operationalized with four statements. All four statements were composed in a positive way, asking the respondents in different ways whether they like the company presented in the video. Here, the respondents had the option to entirely agree with the statement which was coded with a 1, right up to entirely disagree, which was coded with a 7. According to that means among 2,39 and 2,67 are located in the

“positive” agree area. Furthermore, the standard deviation with the values in between 1,146 and 1,294 demonstrate a small dispersion around the mean. It appears that the respondents have a predominantly positive attitude towards Red Bull.

6.5.1.2. Personal liking for the video

The descriptions of the items measuring the personal liking for the video were individualized in the questionnaire and directed at the personal liking for the video. The personal liking for the video, sponsored by Red Bull was operationalized with the three statements. The means and SDs show that the respondents have a positive interest in the extreme sport video. One mean however steps a bit out of line but is still with 3,13 locate in the “positive” area.

6.5.1.3. Status of the event

The status of the event was polled with three items. In principal the statements asked the respondents for their opinion on the international and local importance of the extreme sports Red Bull is sponsoring. The mean of the statement asking of the importance of the event in the local context was 3,74 and the second worst result of the questionnaire. A possible reason for these relatively weak results could be that respondents connect the Olympics or the Football World Cup as important international events instead of a comparably small extreme sport event (O’Brien, 2012). However the majority of the means are still in the “positive” area. So it can be concluded that the status of Red Bull is also perceived positively.

6.5.1.4. Sponsor-event fit

The congruence of sponsor and event was operationalized with five items. Due to the fact that Red Bull is a well-known extreme sports sponsor and is involved in this scene since 1988, it is hardly surprising that this mean is relatively close to entirely agree (Red Bull, 2015). The means are in between 1,56 and 1,98 and the SDs are in between 0,759 and 1,045. These results of sponsor-event fit were the most positive results of the whole survey.

6.5.1.5. Sincerity to the sponsor

The variable sincerity of the sponsor was changed in the questionnaire to perceived sincerity for reasons of accuracy. This variable was operationalized with four items. With a means among 2,39 and 4,14 and SDs in between 1,348 and 1,864 the perceived sincerity for Red Bull has the strongest tendency to the “disagreement” area. That means that the respondents do not perceive the company Red Bull completely transparent and sincere. A reason for

that could be the negative headlines about Red Bull's extreme sport athletes who were injured or even killed by accident, while performing stunts sponsored by Red Bull (Puchan, 2004; Gehringer, 2013).

6.5.1.6. Ubiquity to the sponsor

When it comes to the ubiquity to the sponsor, similar to sincerity of the sponsor, the variable was changed to perceived ubiquity in the questionnaire. The means of perceived ubiquity lied at 1,83-2,07 and therefore in the positive agreement territory. The construct was operationalized with five items. This strong agreement was also predictable due to the fact that Red Bull clearly concentrates on the sponsorship of one niche (extreme sports).

6.5.1.7. Favourability

The dependent variable favourability to the product was queried with three items. This variable operationalizes the sponsorship response by asking the respondents about their favourability for the indirectly perceived product. The product is only indirectly perceived since this video is a content marketing video. In more detail the brand of the company Red Bull is placed in almost every picture of the video, the actual product, however, is not. That means for the evaluation that at this point of the questionnaire is the first contact point between respondents and the actual product, the energy drink from Red Bull. In the light of the above, the mean and the standard deviation are with in the positive area.

6.5.1.8. Interest

Similar to the variable favourability, the variable interest also represents "positive" mean and standard deviation. This dependent variable was also operationalized with three items.

6.5.1.9. Use

The latent variable use of the product was the second contact point of respondents and product. It was also required with three items. The means were in between 3,11 and 3,34 and the corresponding SDs among 1,680 and 1,685. This weak tendency to the positive agreement side may be explained by the direct confrontation with the question of whether the respondents would purchase a product of Red Bull. At this stage, the content marketing effect becomes effective. In contrast to normal advertising, where the customer should be directly convinced of the quality of the product, for example the cleaning power of a washing powder, content marketing approaches the consumer on the indirect long-term relationship stage

(Pulizzi, 2013.a.; CMI, 2015). In this case the extreme sports are in the foreground and the brand/product Red Bull in the background. The actual product, the energy drink of Red Bull was not even shown or mentioned in this video. Considering these conditions, the questionnaire situation and a direct possible purchase situation may be reason the difference to the other means and standard deviations.

6.5.2. Descriptive results of the moderation model

The two constructs in the moderation model were measured with a 6-items 7-point semantic differential feeling scale. In order to operationalize emotions the scale asks the respondents' how strongly they connect a term with certain characteristics (Heise, 1970; Malhotra, 2010). In terms of this questionnaire respondents were asked to express their level of agreement on a semantic differential scale from 1 to 7 between two bipolar adjectives. More specifically 1 symbolized the strongest tendency to the "positive perceived feeling" and 7 symbolized the strongest tendency to the "negative perceived feeling" to the video. According to Malhotra (2010) the semantic differential scale also belongs to the itemized rating scale family. Semantic differential scales are commonly described as ordinal scales (Parasuraman, Grewal and Krishnan, 2006). Hair *et al.* (2008), however argue that a semantic differential scale may be treated as an interval/ordinal interval hybrid scale. Similar to the handling of the Likert-type scale it has become common to treat the semantic differential scale like an interval measurement (Hair *et al.*, 2008). In this case the center serves as a neutral starting point (arbitrary), evaluating the tendency to one of the two bipolar adjectives (Hair *et al.*, 2008). Common applied statistical techniques are the mean and the standard deviation (Malhotra, 2010; Zikmund *et al.*, 2012). Accordingly in the following the mean and SD are examined in order to illuminate the descriptive statistics for the two moderation constructs. The means and SDs are also presented in the Appendix C.

6.5.2.1. Valence of feelings

The moderation construct valence was measured with six items. All six items had two bipolar adjectives evaluating the tendency of perceived feelings concerning valence. The means were in between 2,02 and 3,11. Accordingly, the respondents rated the video's perceived valence "positively". The corresponding SDs were among 1,412 and 1,709, indicating a relatively low spread of the data around the mean. The respondents perceived the creativity of the sponsor/brand strongest (2,02). Since the results are clearly grouped around the "positive

side” and not around the neutral starting point (4) it can be indicated that content marketing arouses pleasure (i.e. valence of emotions).

6.5.2.2. Intensity of feelings

With regard to the latent variable intensity, it was also operationalized with six items. The means grouped around 1,54 up to 2,84 and the SDs around 1,070 up to 1,426. The respondents perceived the responsibility of the sponsor/brand as most intense (1,54/1,070). In this case it may be indicated that, arousal (i.e. intensity of emotions) is caused by content marketing.

6.5.3. Conclusion

In view of the descriptive results presented above it can be said that there are no statistical outliers. All means do not exceed extreme values and the correlated standard deviations do not scatter strongly. Except for very small deviations, all eleven constructs are in the range from entirely agree to mildly agree or positive feeling area, supported by the correlated standard deviation. These consistent results provide an initial descriptive insight into the data and show that the majority of the respondents have a positive attitude towards the content and content producer Red Bull. The following section will proceed to the inferential statistics.

6.6. INFERENCE STATISTICS

In contrast to descriptive statistics (describing, processing and combining the data), inferential statistics extrapolate characteristics from the data sample to the population (Malhotra, 2010). For this research this means that in the following sections the sample size and correlated sponsorship construct are analysed with the help of the probability theory (estimation and testing procedures). Subsequently these results enable the verification of the hypothesis. Before the inner model (structural model) can be analyzed, the outer model (measurement model) has to be verified (Malhotra, 2010). According to Malhotra (2010) this comprises the assessment of the reliability and validity of the measurement model. All these estimation and testing procedures are implemented with structural equation modeling (SEM) as discussed in the methodology (Chapter 5) (Malhotra, 2010; Wong, 2013). More precisely the software SmartPLS using partial least squares (PLS) method was applied to perform the following estimation and testing procedures.

Firstly the results concerning the measurement model ensure formal accuracy. Secondly the hypotheses are verified with the help of the results of the structural model and finally important findings are summed up in a conclusion.

6.6.1. Measurement Model

In order to assess the outer model with the help of SmartPLS, Wong (2013) distinguish between formative and reflective measurement scales. According to the methodology chapter, this study is using a reflective measurement approach. Malhotra (2010) and Hair *et al.* (2013) recommend for a reflective measurement approach the assessment of internal consistency reliability and evidence of construct validity in order to meet the requirements of the structural model. The numbers, which allow the interpretation of the internal consistency reliability, are discussed first. Secondly the convergent validity and discriminant validity are assessed. In summary these 3 criteria have to be met to examine the validity of the measurement model (Wong, 2013; Hair *et al.*, 2013).

6.6.1.1. Internal consistency reliability

In order to prove the internal consistency reliability, Malhotra (2010) suggests the following two measures. He recommends the measure Cronbach's alpha, also known as the coefficient alpha, or the measure composite reliability. Both Cronbach's alpha and composite reliability can accommodate values between 0 and 1. The limit of tolerance for satisfactory internal consistency reliability is at 0.6 for Cronbach's alpha and at 0.7 for composite reliability (Zikmund and Babin, 2006; Malhotra, 2010). The resulting values for the measurement model are presented in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2: Internal consistency reliability measures

	Cronbach's alpha	Composite reliability	This table shows that all values meet the first criterion concerning internal consistency reliability of the measurement model. The full measurement model is presented in the Appendix C. In order to meet all criterions for the validity of the measurement model, the next section presents the results that were needed to evaluate the convergent and discriminant validity.
ATS	0,941	0,958	
FAV	0.891	0,932	
INT	0,870	0,920	
PLE	0,807	0,886	
SOE	0,715	0,840	
SPF	0,828	0,879	
STS	0,836	0,892	
USE	0,930	0,956	
UTS	0,662	0,784	

6.6.1.2. Validity

When it comes to the assessment of the construct validity, Malhotra (2010) and Wong (2013) advise taking a closer look at the convergent and discriminant validity. Consequently this section first examines the results, which are important for the interpretation of the convergent validity. Subsequently the results affecting the discriminant validity are verified carefully.

Regarding convergent validity additionally to the assessment of the composite reliability, the AVE should be taken into closer consideration. The requirements for composite reliability (tolerance limit $\geq 0,7$) have not changed (Zikmund and Babin, 2006; Malhotra, 2010). Thus, the composite reliability results (Table 6.2) show that the first requirement concerning convergent validity is met as all the values exceeds the 0.7 threshold. When it comes to the average variance the permissible value range lies between 0 and 1 (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988; Wong 2013). The limit for tolerance (satisfactory convergent validity) amounts to 0,5. As discussed in the methodology chapter: If the AVE is less than 0,50, the variance due to measurement error is greater than the variance due to the construct. This indicates that the convergent validity is questionable (Bagozzi and Yi, 1988; Wong 2013). In Table 6.3 all values except one meet the requirement for satisfactory convergent validity. With 0,434 the average variance for the construct ubiquity to the sponsor is slightly below the limit of tolerance. Since all other result range significantly above 0,5 and since the composite reliability is significant, too, satisfactory convergent validity exists. Therefore the first criterion assessing construct validity is meet. Furthermore only the discriminant validity criterion is missing to prove the

validity of the whole measurement model (Malhotra, 2010; Hair *et al.*, 2013). The following section describes the assessment of the discriminant validity.

Table 6.3: Average variance

	AVE	According to Malhotra (2010), cross loadings may indicate a lack of distinctiveness. Cross loadings are an indicator for potential problems in evaluating discriminant validity. Regarding the cross loadings of this research (Appendix D), the correlation between an indicator and the latent variable it has been assigned that it was always higher than the other constructs. This means that cross loadings do not exist and the evaluation of the discriminant validity is possible (Malhotra, 2010).
ATS	0,850	
FAV	0,821	
INT	0,794	
PLE	0,722	
SOE	0,638	
SPF	0,593	
STS	0,677	
USE	0,878	
UTS	0,434	

The Fornell-Lacker criterion enables the evaluation of the discriminant validity (Fornell and Larcker 1981). In order to substantiate the discriminant validity, the diagonal square root of AVE in table 6.4 has to be greater than the absolute value of any of the inner construct correlations. Table 6.4 illustrates that the results for this meet the Fornell-Larcker criterion. Consequently all 3 criteria to test validity of the measurement model were met. In the following the structural model sections discuss the verification of the hypotheses.

Table 6.4: Diagonal square roots AVE

	ATS	FAV	INT	PLE	SOE	SPF	STS	USE	UTS
ATS	0,922								
FAV	0,536	0,906							
INT	0,453	0,705	0,891						
PLE	0,548	0,479	0,441	0,849					
SOE	0,353	0,546	0,457	0,329	0,799				
SPF	0,367	0,323	0,354	0,38	0,234	0,77			
STS	0,271	0,486	0,358	0,176	0,437	0,184	0,823		
USE	0,511	0,732	0,658	0,379	0,479	0,288	0,456	0,937	
UTS	0,294	0,387	0,348	0,25	0,357	0,282	0,433	0,311	0,659

6.6.2. Structural model

In contrast to the measurement model, which verified the reliability and validity of the measurement (often referred to as the outer model), the aim of the structural model is to verify the

hypothesized relationships simultaneously (Wong, 2013; Hair *et al.*, 2013). In this study, two statistical strategies were employed to conduct this analysis.

The SEM model allows the estimation and testing of correlative relationships between endogenous and exogenous variables. In order to verify the proposed relationships for the sponsorship to response model (Hypothesis 1-6), it was examined with the partial least squares software SmartPLS. The presentation and interpretation of the results for the sponsorship construct follow in the next section.

The second statistical strategy applied was a regression analysis, testing the moderating effect of emotions on the sponsorship construct. In this matter the statistic software SPSS in combination with the macro PROCESS from Hayes (2015) was used to verify the remaining hypotheses. After verification of the sponsorship to response model, the results for moderation effects are presented and interpreted.

6.6.2.1. Verification of sponsorship to response model

When it comes to the verification of the hypotheses with the help of SmartPLS, this software package provides the coefficient of determination (R^2), t-values, the p-values and beta coefficients (Wong, 2013; Hair *et al.*, 2013).

Regarding the coefficient of determination, it has a permissible value range between 0 and 1. As discussed in the methodology (Chapter 5) the R^2 values concerning any research with humans are commonly lower than 50%. The limit of tolerance is set by 25%. Every value lower than that indicates a slight fit between sample data and model (Chin, Marcolin and Newsted 2003; Henseler, Ringle and Sinkovics 2009; Wong, 2013). The results for this research exceed the typically lower expectations, which indicate the well fit between the sample data and the model (Wong, 2013). The Figure 6.2 exemplifies the great quality of the structural model with values in between 0,371 and 0,51.

The t-values, as a result of the t-test, based on the Student's t-distribution presented in Figure 6.2, indicates whether the relationship is supported. Thus through the interpretation of the t-value a hypothesis can be supported or rejected. The hypothesis is supported when the t-value is higher than 1,96 and rejected in case of lower values (De Veaux, Velleman and Bock, 2011; Zikmund *et al.*, 2012). A further function used to test the null hypothesis is the p-value (Table 6.5). This value is oriented at the significance level of the test. Thus the p-value

indicates how extreme the result is, that is to say the smaller the p-value, the greater the chance of rejection of the null hypothesis (De Veaux, Velleman and Bock, 2011).

If the t-test for a regression coefficient is not statistically significant, a further interpretation does not make sense. In case it is significant, the beta coefficient (β), standardized or path coefficient (Table 6.5), may help in further interpretation (Pallant, 2013). This coefficient measures how strongly each predictor variable (independent) influences the criterion variable (dependent). This means: the higher the beta value, the greater the impact of the predictor variable on the criterion variable (De Veaux, Velleman and Bock, 2011). In the following each hypothesis is verified with the help of these three values.

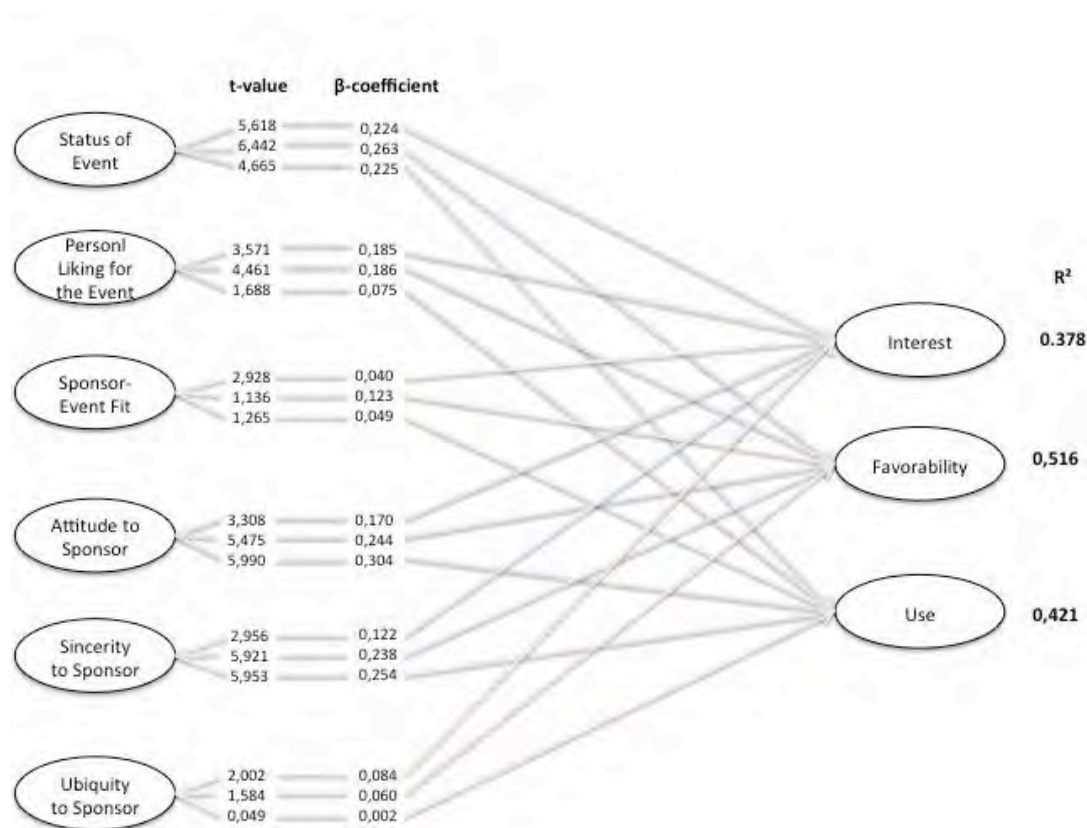


Figure 6.2: SmartPLS bootstrap t-value results

All relationships tested at the $p < 0,05$ level

Hypothesis 1 predicted a positive relationship between the consumers' personal liking of the event and a stronger impact on the sponsor's image. The independent variable personal liking had significant t-values in combination with interest and favourability. The combination with the dependent variable use had a t-value of 1,688 and thus was not significant. This rejection was confirmed by the corresponding p-value greater than 0,05. However, two out of three values were significant and thus this hypothesis is supported. For the two significant constructs, the beta coefficients were comparatively high. This means that personal liking for

the event/video had a considerable impact on the two response variables 'interest' and 'favourability'.

Hypothesis 2 projected a positive relationship between the perceived status of the event and the indirect perception of the sponsor. Here, all t-values yielded highly significant results. Accordingly hypothesis 2 is supported. The beta coefficients showed that the status of the event had considerable impact on all three response variables.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that there is a positive relationship between the consumers' attitude towards the sponsor and their response to the sponsorship. All three t-values exceeded the 1,96 requirement by far and thus hypothesis 3 is supported. With regard to the corresponding beta coefficient values it can be said that the attitude towards the company had a great impact on the three response variables.

Hypothesis 4 proposed that there is a positive relationship between the consumers' perception of the sincerity of the sponsor and the consumer's response to the sponsorship. The t-values were all well above the significance requirement and thus hypothesis 4 is supported. The beta values indicated that the perceived sincerity of the company (Red Bull) had a great impact on all three response variables.

Hypothesis 5 predicted that there is a negative relationship between a high-perceived ubiquity of the sponsor and the consumers' response to the sponsorship. The only t-value that trespassed slightly over the 1,96 significant requirement was the dependent variable interest. Since only one out of three t-values were higher than the significance requirement the hypothesis 5 was rejected. However the beta value of the dependent variable interest can be interpreted as follows: There was a weak negative correlation between a high-perceived ubiquity of the sponsor and the consumer's response to the sponsorship.

Hypothesis 6 proposed a positive relationship between the perceived sponsor-event fit and the consumers' response to the sponsorship. Concerning the t-values only one out of three values was significant. This fact was underpinned by the p-values, also only supporting the dependent variable interest, thus only one. So hypothesis 6 was rejected as well. With regard to the variable interest, in the beta coefficient context it can be argued that the perceived sponsor-event fit had a relatively great impact on the sponsorship response.

Table 6.5: Results of SmartPLS analysis

	Hypothesized relationship	Estimate Coefficient β	t-Value	p-value	Null Hypotheses
H1a:	PLE → INT	0,185	3,571	0	Rejected
H1b:	PLE → FAV	0,186	4,461	0	Rejected
H1c:	PLE → USE	0,075	1,688	0,092	Supported
H2a:	SOE → INT	0,224	5,618	0	Rejected
H2b:	SOE → FAV	0,263	6,442	0	Rejected
H2c:	SOE → USE	0,225	4,665	0	Rejected
H3a:	ATS → INT	0,170	3,308	0,001	Rejected
H3b:	ATS → FAV	0,244	5,475	0	Rejected
H3c:	ATS → USE	0,304	5,990	0	Rejected
H4a:	STS → INT	0,122	2,956	0,003	Rejected
H4b:	STS → FAV	0,238	5,921	0	Rejected
H4c:	STS → USE	0,254	5,953	0	Rejected
H5a:	UTS → INT	0,084	2,002	0,046	Rejected
H5b:	UTS → FAV	0,060	1,584	0,113	Supported
H5c:	UTS → USE	-0,002	0,049	0,961	Supported
H6a:	SPF → INT	0,040	2,928	0,003	Rejected
H6b:	SPF → FAV	0,123	1,136	0,256	Supported
H6c:	SPF → USE	0,049	1,265	0,206	Supported

All relationships tested at the $p < 0.05$ level.

In order to review the last two hypotheses concerning moderation of the sponsorship construct, a different test strategy had to be adopted. Thus the following briefly discusses the different test strategy. Subsequently the corresponding results are presented and interpreted.

6.6.2.2. Verification of the moderation model

When the moderation is supposed to be verified with SPSS with the macro PROCESS, the most important value is the p-value of interaction (Field, 2013). The p-value of interaction examines whether there is a potential moderation on the relationship between predictor (independent) and outcome (dependent) variables. According to Hayes (2013), the p-value of interaction has to be smaller than 0,05 to be significant for moderation.

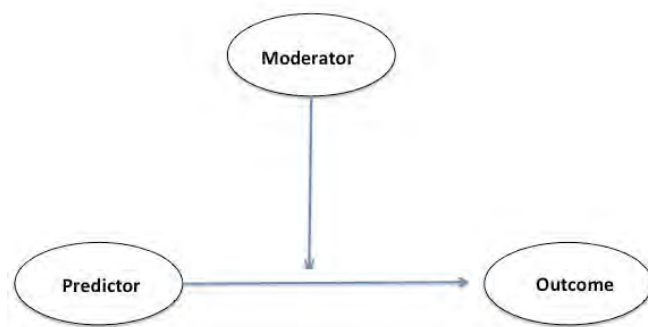


Figure 6.3 illustrates the construct used to verify moderation. In sum 36 models were tested with this constellation (Figure 6.3), of which 18 models (H7a-H7o) with 'valence' as a potential moderator and 18 models (H8a-H8o) with 'intensity' as potential moderator.

Figure 6.3: Moderation Model

Source: Adopted from Field (2013)

Above the p-value for interaction, the unstandardized coefficient (b), standard error (SE B; adjusted for heteroscedasticity) and t-test (t-value) are presented in Table 6.6. Furthermore, the confidence interval for the unstandardized coefficient (b) is given by LLCI (lower limit of confidence interval) and ULCI (upper limit of confidence interval). According to Field (2013), there is a close relationship between the confidence interval and the significant test. If a statistic is significant at the 0.05 level, then the 95% confidence interval will not contain 0. So vice versa: if LLCI or ULCI contain 0 it is a sign for low/no significance (Field, 2013). The Table 6.6 presents the significant results of the moderation model. Thus the following three significant models; H8l: Sincerity to sponsor and Use of the product, H8o: Ubiquity to sponsor and Use of the product moderated by intensity and H7n: Ubiquity to sponsor and Favourability for the sponsor moderated by valence are discussed in more detail.

The first model (H8l), indicates that the relationship between the perceived sincerity of the company Red Bull and use of the product is moderated by the intensity of the emotion/feeling. Further, the R^2 indicates that perceived sincerity of the company Red Bull explains 28,2% of the variance of intensity of the emotion. When it comes to the relationship between predictor and moderator the b value indicates a negative relationship. That means that the increase of perceived sincerity leads to a decrease of emotions and vice versa.

The second significant model (H8o) indicates that the relationship between a perceived low ubiquity of Red Bull and the use of the product (energy drink) is moderated by the intensity of the emotion/feeling. The R^2 indicates that perceived low ubiquity of the company Red Bull explains 16,6% of the variance of intensity of the emotion. The relationship between predictor and moderator is again negative.

The third model (H7n) indicates that the relationship between a perceived low ubiquity of Red Bull and the favourability is moderated by the valence of the emotion/feeling. The R^2 indicates that perceived low ubiquity of Red Bull explains 23,4% of the variance of valence of the emotion. In the following the hypotheses 7 and 8 shall be verified on the basis of these findings.

Hypothesis 7 predicted that valence of emotion moderates the relationship between the H7a-H7o. The hypothesis H7n (Table 6.6) enabled the detection of perceived emotions for the sponsor Red Bull through the variable 'pleasure'. Thus hypothesis 7 was supported.

Hypothesis 8 proposed that intensity of emotion moderates the relationship between the H8a-H8o. The hypotheses H8l and H8o (Table 6.6) allow the detection of perceived emotions for the sponsor Red Bull through the variable 'arousal'. Thus hypothesis 8 was also supported.

Table 6.6: Significant moderation model results

H8I		b	SE B	t-value	p-value
		[LLCI/ULCI]			
	Constant	3,1969	0,0594	53,7838	0,000
		3,08/3,31			
Moderator	INT	0,4174	0,0715	5,8342	0,000
		0,28/0,56			
Predictor	STS	0,4933	0,0444	11,1065	0,000
		0,41/0,58			
Interaction (STS×INT)	Int_1	-0,1245	0,0567	-2,1972	0,0284
		-0,24/-0,02			
H8o		b	SE B	t-value	p-value
		[LLCI/ULCI]			
	Constant	3,2100	0,0648	49,5456	0,000
		3,08/3,34			
Moderator	INT	0,4452	0,0753	5,9130	0,000
		0,30/0,60			
Predictor	UTS	0,5508	0,0827	6,6583	0,000
		0,39/0,71			
Interaction (UTS×INT)	Int_1	-0,2202	0,1037	-2,1227	0,0342
		-0,42/-0,02			
H7n		b	SE B	t-value	p-value
		[LLCI/ULCI]			
	Constant	2,6724	0,0494	54,0734	0,000
		2,58/2,77			
Moderator	VLA	0,4193	0,0585	7,1699	0,000
		0,30/0,53			
Predictor	UTS	0,5352	0,0673	7,9524	0,000
		0,40/0,67			
Moderator (UTS×VLA)	Int_1	-0,1525	0,0770	-1,9806	0,0481
		-0,30/-0,001			

In order to interpret the moderation effects, the moderation results have to be more closely examined. When the conditional effect of the predictor on the outcome at values of the moderator is interpreted, it is crucial to interpret the unstandardized coefficient (b) in combination with the p-value (Field, 2013). Beside these two operating numbers, the regression of the moderator, standard errors, t-values and the confidence interval are presented in Table 6.7. The following table 6.7 shows three different regressions of the moderator for each construct in ascending order from low, moderate, to high.

Table 6.7: Conditional effect of the predictor on the outcome at values of the moderator

Model	Regression Moderator	b	SE B	t-value	p-value
		LLCI/ULCI			
H8l Intensity ↓ STS→USE	-0,9737	0,6145	0,0646	9,5179	0,0000
		0,49/0,74			
	0,0000	0,4933	0,0444	11,1065	0,0000
		0,41/0,58			
	0,9737	0,3720	0,0766	4,8570	0,0000
		0,22/0,52			
H8o Intensity ↓ UTS→USE	-0,9737	0,7652	0,1303	5,8745	0,0000
		0,50/1,02			
	0,0000	0,5508	0,0827	6,6583	0,0000
		0,39/0,71			
	0,9737	0,3364	0,1308	2,5715	0,0104
		0,08/0,59			
H7n Valence ↓ UTS→FAV	-0,9282	0,6768	0,0982	6,8920	0,0000
		0,48/0,87			
	0,0000	0,5352	0,0673	7,9524	0,0000
		0,40/0,67			
	0,9282	0,3937	0,0981	4,0111	0,0001
		0,20/0,59			

For the first model (H8l) the results can be interpreted as follows:

- (1) In case of low emotional intensity there is a positive and highly significant relationship between sincerity of the company and use of the product.
- (2) In case of moderate emotional intensity there is a smaller but still positive significant relationship between sincerity of the company and use of the product.
- (3) With respect to high emotional intensity there is the smallest positive significant relationship between sincerity of the company and use of the product.

These three statements describing the conditional effect of sincerity of the company on use of the product, were visualized with the help of the software SPSS. The following Figure 6.4 presents the resulting graph with all three statements visualized.

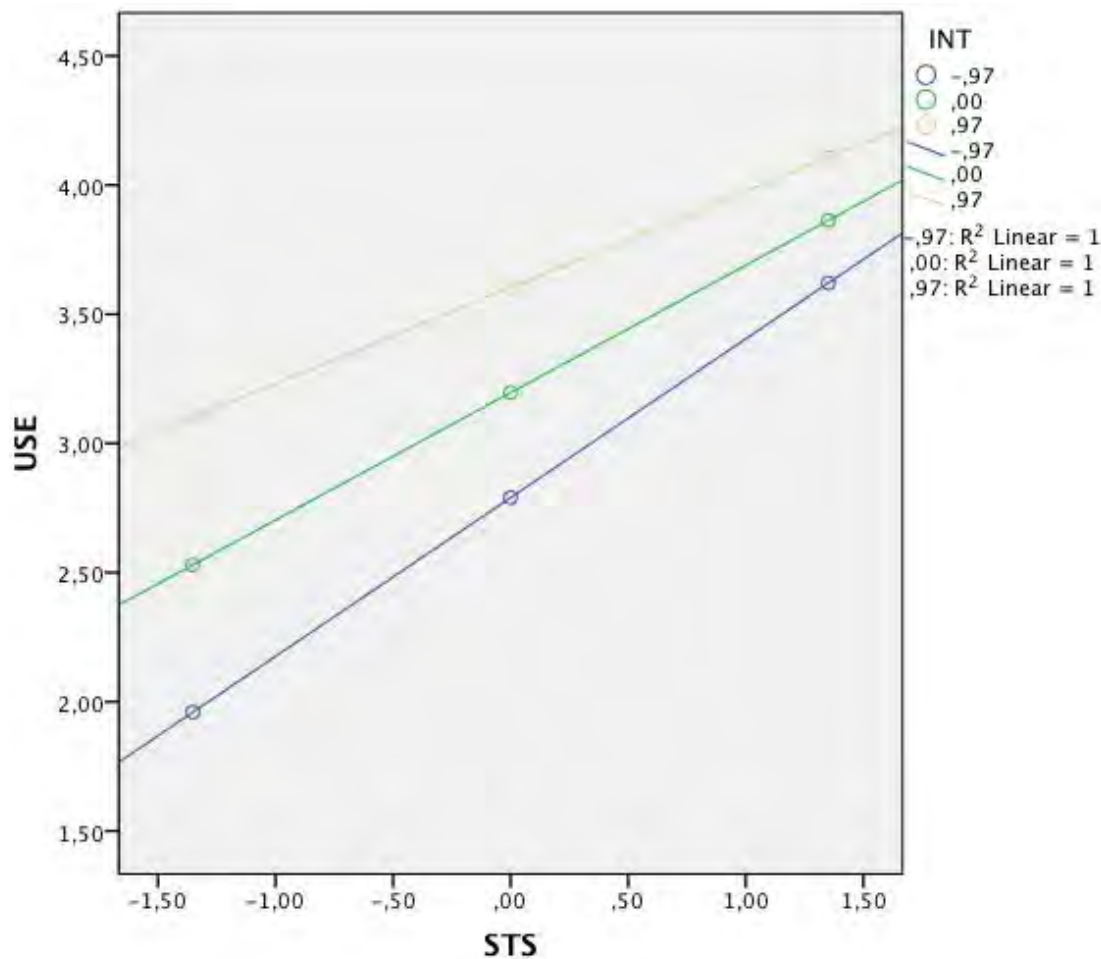


Figure 6.4: Conditional effect of STS on USE

Taking these three interpretations into account, it can be said that the more emotional intensity is perceived the lesser attention is paid by the respondents to the relationship between sincerity of the company and use of the product.

For the second model (H8o) the results can be interpreted as follows:

- (1) In case of low emotional intensity there is a highly positive significant relationship between low perceived ubiquity towards Red Bull and the use of the product.
- (2) In case of moderate emotional intensity there is a smaller but still positive significant relationship between low perceived ubiquity towards Red Bull and the use of the product.
- (3) In case of high emotional intensity there is the smallest positive significant relationship between low perceived ubiquity towards Red Bull and the use of the product.

In order to support these three statements, Figure 6.5 presents the visualized results of the conditional effect of low perceived ubiquity on the use of the product.

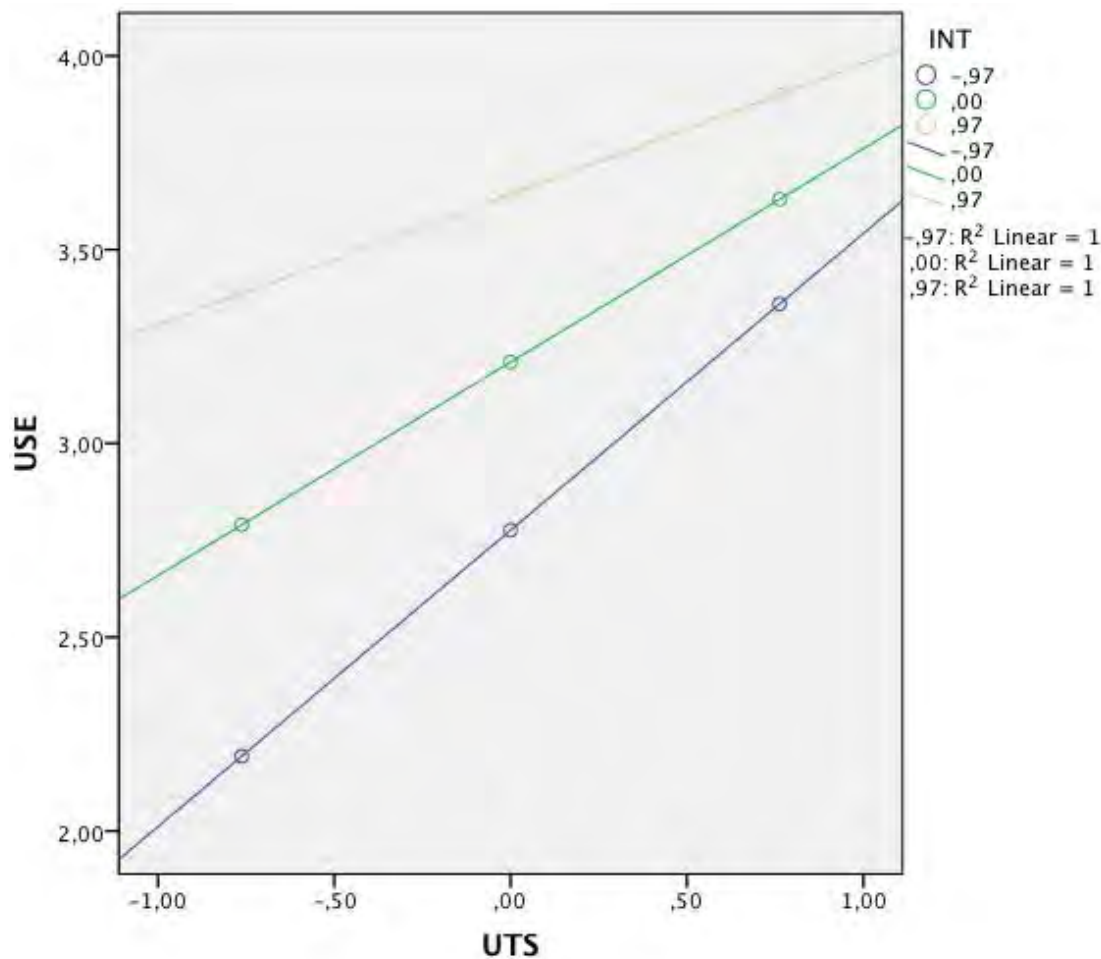


Figure 6.5: Conditional effect of UTS on USE

With respect to these results again it can be said, the more emotional arousal/intensity is perceived the less attention is paid by the respondents to the relationship between low perceived ubiquity towards Red Bull and the use of the product. So just as in the construct above, it can be indicated that the catchy content of the video aroused the respondents so much that the more they were emotionally aroused the less they paid attention to the constellation of the construct.

For the third model (H7n) the figures can be interpreted as follows:

- (1) In case of low emotional valence there is a highly positive significant relationship between low perceived ubiquity towards Red Bull and the favourability for the product.
- (2) In case of moderate emotional valence there is a smaller but still positive significant relationship between low perceived ubiquity towards Red Bull and the favourability to the product.

- (3) With respect to high emotional valence there is the smallest positive significant relationship between low perceived ubiquity towards Red Bull and the favourability to the product.

The visualized conditional effect of low perceived ubiquity on the favourability to the product is presented in Figure 6.6.

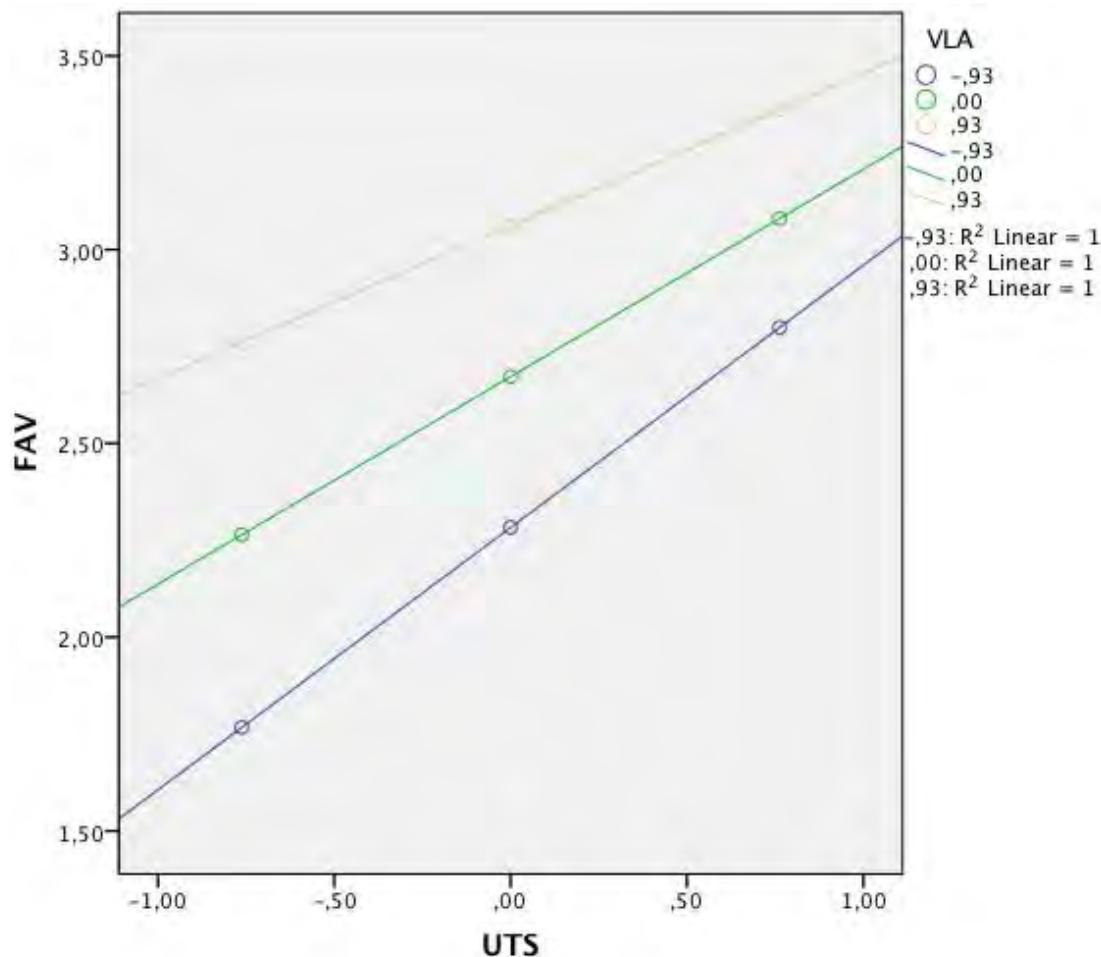


Figure 6.6: Conditional effect of UTS on FAV

It therefore seems as if the higher the emotional pleasure (i.e. valence of the emotion) the weaker the relationship between low perceived ubiquity toward Red Bull and the favourability to the product.

In view of these results and the results of the other two constructs, a clear pattern can be recognized. In fact, the intensity of the relationship between predictor and outcome drops with increasing emotional arousal (intensity) or pleasure (valence) can be interpreted as triggered by the content of the video.

This result was predictable considering the catching extreme sports video with content marketing character. More precisely, this result meets exactly the content marketing objectives of the company Red Bull. According to O'Brien (2012), a successful content marketing strategy separates the content from the product but highly arouses the consumer with entertaining content. This has the effect that the consumer subconsciously distances him or herself from the commercial relationship to the brand/company and builds a relationship to the communicated content (O'Brien, 2012; Pulizzi, 2013.a.; CMI, 2015).

6.7. CONCLUSION

This chapter reported the results of the data analysis. Firstly the consolidation of the hypotheses and the conceptual framework were presented, to establish a logical structure for reporting the results. Secondly the summative fieldwork report gave an insight into the research procedure. In the following sections the sample size and responses were reviewed and subsequently the descriptive statistics were reported. Finally inferential statistics first verified the measurement model and then the structural model.

With 557 valid replies, this research had a solid basis for the sampling requirements determined in the methodology. Concerning the descriptive analysis results, there were no statistical outliers. The majority of results were distributed across the positive spectrum of the questionnaire. When it comes to the verification of the measurement model, all requirements had been met. The subsequent structural model also proved a solid consistency. In order to provide an all-encompassing view on content marketing particularly against the background of the results of this research, the final chapter concludes with a summary of the results. Any limitations of this research and recommendations for further research will also be discussed in the final chapter.

7. Chapter Seven: Conclusions and Recommendations

7.1. INTRODUCTION

As one of the main communication channels of the 21st century, the internet represents a significant extension of communication possibilities for marketers as well as for consumers (Mangold and Faulds, 2009; Fritz, 2013). Particularly consumers, demand more control over their media, its truthfulness and immediate access to content (Mangold and Faulds, 2009). Consumer-generated content increases in popularity and becomes an alternative to marketer-generated content as suggested by the conventional advertising model (Rowley, 2008). Marketers have realised that trend, and adapted their marketing strategies accordingly. Instead of advertising information around the product (price, quality, etc.), marketing practitioners just recently, progressively focus on producing valuable content (Pulizzi, 2013.a.). This practice is referred to as content marketing (CMI, 2015). In order to contour this relatively new way of indirect marketing of a brand or product, content marketing was defined as follows (Chapter 2):

Content marketing is a promotion strategy, which extends the promotional mix, and makes use of several communication channels, particularly of social media channels. It focuses on offering something valuable to the consumer/customer for free. By taking consumer-generated content into account and communicating with the audience with a non-purchase-pushing intention and by using appealing, useful or entertaining content, the strategy aims at building trust and a long-term relationship with the consumer/customer.

While content marketing is now an important part of the advertiser's repertoire (Pulizzi, 2013.a.), it has yet to be sufficiently explored and established in marketing literature. Thus this study's concern was the scholarly illumination of content marketing.

The intention of this chapter is to interpret the results of chapter six and reach a conclusion concerning the effect of content marketing on consumer emotions triggered by sponsorship, in order to determine the importance of content marketing as a new medium in advertising. The next section reviews the individual chapters, which guided the idea of this research. This is followed by a section which interprets the results based on the combination of research objectives and hypotheses of the study. Although the results contribute to an understanding of content marketing in general it is limited to the use of sponsorship in video content market-

ing and the examination of a possible emotional moderation. Considering the fact that the term content marketing comprises more than the content creation via sponsorship (CMI, 2015), this research is clearly limited. Furthermore this research is methodologically limited. Therefore this chapter also demonstrates the limitations of the study before future research suggestions are added.

7.2. SYNOPSIS OF RESEARCH

This research focused on shedding light on sponsorship as one promotion strategy used in content marketing. Sponsorship -as a well-researched topic (Walliser, 2003)- on the one hand, and a popular content marketing promotion strategy (Zorrilla, 2014; Pulizzi, 2014) on the other hand, provided a stable basis for this research. Additionally, the energy drink manufacturer Red Bull, which has been following a content marketing strategy centered on sponsorship for 18 years (O'Brien, 2012; Red Bull 2015), delivers a real world context for the study.

Content marketing is a relatively new promotion strategy, eminently made possible by technological progress (Mangold and Faulds, 2009; Fritz, 2013; CMI, 2015). Chapter two sheds light on the term content marketing, its position in IMC, and its communication channels. Reflecting on this, a number of definitions of the term were reviewed and a more streamlined definition was developed. In the IMC context, marketing has become an important promotion strategy (Gurau, 2008). It focuses on the coordination of UCG (distancing from traditional promotion strategies), providing something valuable and building near non-commercial relationships (Pulizzi, 2013.a.; .c.). On this basis, the important content marketing communication channels were introduced in order to further an understanding of content marketing. Considering these channels, a clear online tendency was recognized. As supported by Smith (2009) there has been a shift from marketer-driven to user-driven web technologies (social networks, blogs, etc.). While the marketer-driven web bombards the consumer with advertising at any time (spam, banner advertising, etc.), the consumer-driven web gives the consumer more leeway. This can be seen, for example, in enhanced entertainment from the marketer side, non-commercial interaction and the content generation from the consumer side (Smith, 2009). Chapter two then concluded with a comprehensive presentation of content marketing.

As mentioned above, this thesis concentrates on content-producing sponsorship. The use of sponsorship to advertise a brand or product is not a new marketing method (Walraven, Kon-

ing and Bottenburg, 2012; Walraven, Bijmolt and Koning, 2014). What is comparatively new, accompanied by technological progress, is the generation of a different type of content with the help of sponsorship (Pulizzi, 2014). Thus chapter three elucidated the term sponsorship, how it differentiates from advertising and what types of sponsorship are popular for commercial use. Furthermore the operationalisation of sponsorship effectiveness and the image creation/transfer caused by sponsorship were discussed in more detail. According to O'Brien (2012) and Zorrilla (2014), the integration of sponsorship activities in content marketing provides opportunities for companies to increase the number of people that consume and share their content. Thus the relation of sponsorship and content marketing was discussed in more detail. When sponsorship is used in content marketing, the event content is in the foreground and the sponsor of the event is in the background (O'Brien, 2012; Pulizzi, 2014). The energy drink manufacturer Red Bull gives a protruding functioning real world example of content marketing with sponsorship (O'Brien, 2012). Complementary with product placement in movies, Red Bull embarked on a unique content marketing style (O'Brien, 2012). Red Bull started to sponsor and produce online extreme sport videos, with the athletes' performance in the foreground and only indirectly introducing the brand through product/label placement in the background. In order to examine this specific type of content marketing, chapter four explored online video marketing.

Initiated and supported by technological progress, online video sharing sites (Youtube, Netflix, etc.) provide a new media platform to broadcast short videos to marketing practitioners as well as consumers (Broxton *et al.*, 2013). According to Luke (2013) watching video online has already become part of the Western lifestyle. In combination with social media, online videos can go viral and spread world wide (Botha and Reyneke, 2013). In order to illuminate online video marketing, chapter four focused on examining this relatively new marketing technique. Firstly important elements of online video marketing (target audience, online video marketing methods and viral video marketing) were discussed. On this basis differences between online video varieties were introduced. Traditional online advertising videos were compared with online video content marketing. This strategy was discussed more closely with an online content marketing video sponsored by Red Bull as the main research focus. As shortly mentioned in the introduction and discussed in the methodology (Chapter 5) and the results chapter (Chapter 6), this thesis hypothesised that perceived emotions concerning the content of the video influence the perception of the brand/company. Thus the final sec-

tion of chapter four more closely considered the composition of emotional response in the online video marketing context.

Representing the interface between theory and practice, the methodology chapter merged research requirements, conceptual framework and hypotheses. The resulting conceptual framework, which visualised the hypothesized relationships of this study, served as a guideline for the orientation of the methodology. On that basis, the methods applied to operationalize the theoretical model were discussed in more detail. Then the actual process of data collection and preparation was described. Finally, the quantitative methods operationalized with descriptive statistics and the qualitative methods operationalized with inferential statistics were elucidated.

The inferential statistic section required particular care because two models had to be analysed: the sponsorship to response model and the moderation model. Accordingly the sponsorship to response model was analysed with the PLS-SEM and the moderation model was analysed with a modified regression analysis. For this purpose the software programs SmartPLS and SPSS (using the macro PROCESS) were applied. The results of the quantitative and the qualitative methods were presented and analysed in chapter six.

The main aim of chapter six was to illustrate how the quantitative and the qualitative methods were applied and to present the results. Before that, the composition of the conceptual framework and the hypotheses were presented to facilitate the understanding of the subsequent data analysis. Furthermore a fieldwork report, the sample size and related response rate were included to provide a comprehensive overview. The questionnaire results of the descriptive analysis were all centered between 1 and 4 (on an agreement scale ascending in intensity of disagreement from 1 to 7), which indicates that almost all items were in the “positive agreement” area (Appendix C). Accordingly there were no descriptive statistical outliers. In order to test the hypotheses relationships, Hair *et al.* (2013) advice to assess the internal consistency reliability and construct validity were followed. These requirements were met, and thus the measurement model was statistically accepted. With respect to the verification of the hypotheses operationalized with PLS-SEM, two hypotheses out of six were rejected. More precisely, hypothesis 5 predicting that there is a negative relationship between a high-perceived ubiquity of the sponsor and the consumers’ response to the sponsorship and hypothesis 6 proposing a positive relationship between the perceived sponsor-event fit and the consumers’ response to the sponsorship. When it comes to the verification of the hy-

potheses operationalized with the modified regression analysis, hypotheses H7n, H8l and H8o were supported.

Particularly, the significant results of the regression analysis substantiated the fact that the intensity and valence of emotions moderate the relationship between the customer's perception of sponsorship and their response to it. An effective appeal to consumer emotions through content marketing, which conveys sincerity and singularity on behalf of the sponsor, was determined to produce a significant positive effect on the consumer's attitude towards the sponsor, and vice versa. The interpretation of the results of the sponsorship to response model and particularly of the moderation model will follow in detail.

7.3. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The intention of this study was to determine the nature of content marketing. On the basis of the literature review and real world applications, the primary and secondary research objectives were formulated.

Primary objectives:

- I. To determine how consumers perceive the sponsor, through content marketing in sponsorship.
- II. To determine if emotions, triggered by content marketing, influence the attitude towards the sponsors/brand.

Secondary objective:

- I. To determine if content marketing in the energy drink industry sector only appeals to a certain audience.

These objectives provided the guidance for the development of the conceptual framework presented in Figure 7.1.

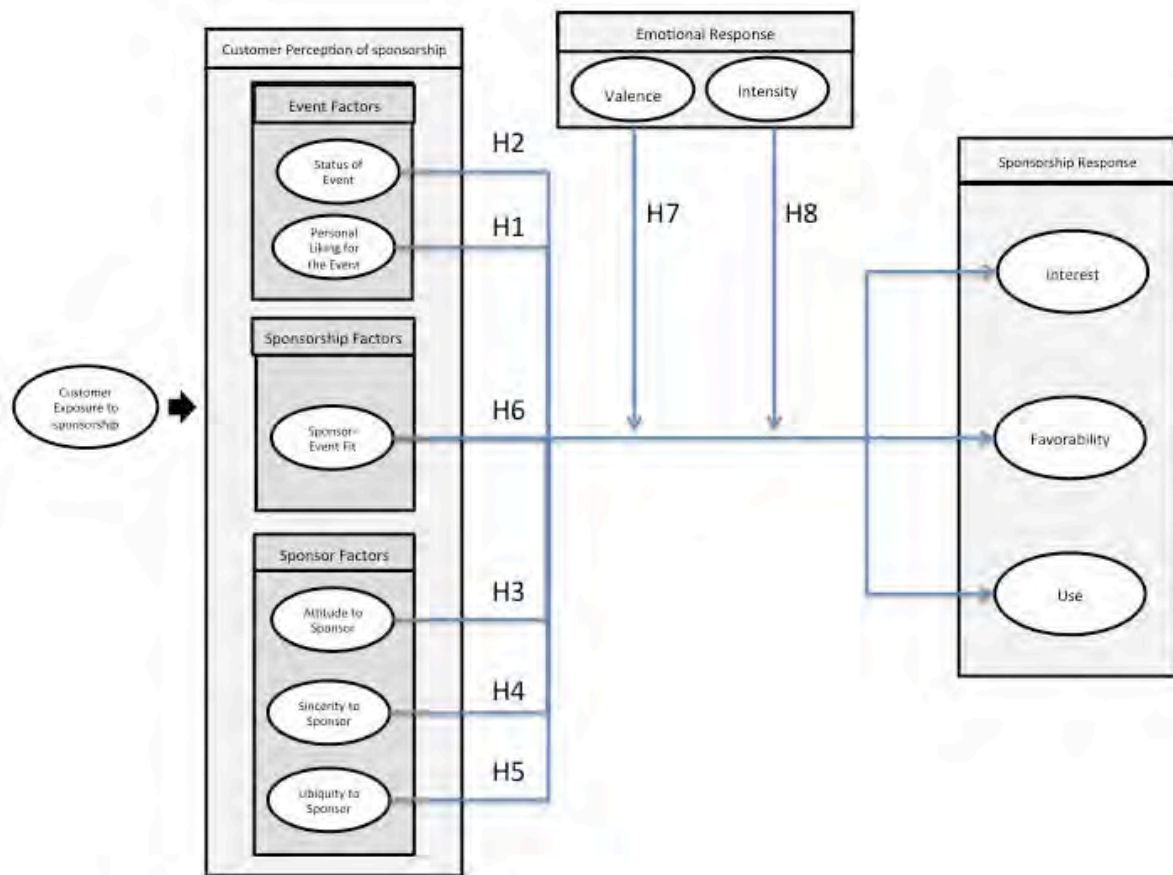


Figure 7.1: Sponsorship emotions framework

Source: Adopted from Speed and Thompson (2000) and Bal *et al.* (2008)

In consideration of these conceptual demarcations, the following hypotheses were composed in order to substantiate the frameworks constellation.

Hypothesis 1:

There is a positive relationship between the consumers' personal liking of the event and the consumers' response in terms of Interest (H1a), Favourability (H1b) and Use (H1c).

Hypothesis 2:

There is a positive relationship between the perceived status of the event and the consumers' response in terms of Interest (H2a), Favourability (H2b) and Use (H2c).

Hypothesis 3:

There is a positive relationship between the consumers' attitude towards the sponsor and the consumers' response in terms of Interest (H3a), Favourability (H3b) and Use (H3c).

Hypothesis 4:

There is a positive relationship between the consumers' perception of the sincerity of the sponsor and the consumers' response in terms of Interest (H4a), Favourability (H4) and Use (H4c).

Hypothesis 5:

There is a negative relationship between a high-perceived ubiquity of the sponsor and the consumers' response in terms of Interest (H5a), Favourability (H5b) and Use (H5c).

Hypothesis 6:

There is a positive relationship between the perceived sponsor-event fit and the consumers' response in terms of Interest (H6a), Favourability (H6b) and Use (H6c).

Since the software SmartPLS does not allow 36 moderation paths at a time (Nitzl, 2010; Henseler and Fassott, 2010), the following two hypotheses were verified with the software

SPSS. The macro PROCESS helped to verify every single moderation type. The conceptual framework visualizing this process is presented in Figure 7.2.

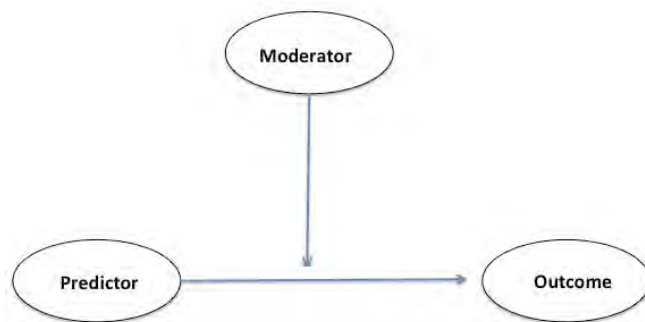


Figure 7.2: Moderation Model

Source: Adopted from Field (2013)

Hypothesis 7:

Valence of emotion moderates the relationship between:

H7a: Status of the event and Interest for the sponsor.

H7b: Status of the event and Favourability for the sponsor.

H7c: Status of the event and Use of the product.

H7d: Personal liking for the event and Interest for the sponsor.

H7e: Personal liking for the event and Favourability for the sponsor.

H7f: Personal liking for the event and Use of the product.

H7g: Attitude to sponsor and Interest for the sponsor.

- H7h: Attitude to sponsor and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H7i: Attitude to sponsor and Use of the product.
- H7j: Sincerity of sponsor and Interest for the sponsor.
- H7k: Sincerity of sponsor and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H7l: Sincerity of sponsor and Use of the product.
- H7m: Ubiquity of sponsor and Interest for the sponsor.
- H7n: Ubiquity of sponsor and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H7o: Ubiquity of sponsor and Use of the product.

Hypothesis 8:

Intensity of emotion moderates the relationship between:

- H8a: Status of the event and Interest for the sponsor.
- H8b: Status of the event and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H8c: Status of the event and Use of the product.
- H8d: Personal liking for the event and Interest for the sponsor.
- H8e: Personal liking for the event and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H8f: Personal liking for the event and Use of the product.
- H8g: Attitude to sponsor and Interest for the sponsor.
- H8h: Attitude to sponsor and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H8i: Attitude to sponsor and Use of the product.
- H8j: Sincerity of sponsor and Interest for the sponsor.
- H8k: Sincerity of sponsor and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H8l: Sincerity of sponsor and Use of the product.
- H8m: Ubiquity of sponsor and Interest for the sponsor.
- H8n: Ubiquity of sponsor and Favourability for the sponsor.
- H8o: Ubiquity of sponsor and Use of the product.

Models were drawn from existing literature to formulate the results. Firstly the sponsorship to response model and respective hypotheses were interpreted. Subsequently the moderation model and coherent hypotheses were interpreted. The following sections shall explore these four individual factors that directly and indirectly affect sport sponsorship:

- (1) Attitudes towards the event (directly)
- (2) Attitudes towards the sponsor (directly)
- (3) Perception of congruence between sponsor and event (directly)
- (4) Emotional Factors (indirectly)

This approach facilitates the development of a comprehensive integrated conclusion to follow these sections.

7.3.1. Attitudes towards the event

The attitude of the customer towards an event was verbalized by personal liking for the event and perceived status of the sponsored event. Hypotheses one and two transformed these inputs into statements. According to D'Astous and Bitz (1995), an increase of personal liking for the event indicates a stronger positive impact on the sponsor's image. The data analysis results were significant and thus hypothesis one was supported. This outcome indicated that personal liking for the video from Red Bull has a positive influence on the sponsorship response. Further the high beta values underpin that personal liking for the video had a considerable impact on sponsorship response.

According to Speed and Thompson (2000), a high status of the event is subconsciously perceived and increases the sponsorship response. For example the status of the Olympics or the FIFA World Cup is higher in the people's perception than the status of a local sports event (Speed and Thompson, 2000). The results considering the status of the events presented in the video from Red Bull were significant and thus indicated a positive relationship between the perceived status of the event and the indirect perception of the sponsor. These results were predictable because Red Bull has been sponsoring extreme sports events for 18 years and has a highly perceived status which may be due to its good reputation. The results projected on content marketing are new insights, which indicate that a perceived positive attitude (personal liking and status) towards a content-rich event has a positive influence on the response. Accordingly content marketing practitioners should consider the following, which can be derived from this research: First, that a specification of the target group will

increase the personal liking for the event and intensify the response. Second, that the higher the status of the event, the higher the reputation-boosting response will be.

7.3.2. Attitude towards the sponsor

When it comes to the attitude towards the sponsor, three constructs were used to capture this term. These three constructs were verbalised by attitude towards the sponsor, perceived sincerity of the sponsor and perceived ubiquity of the sponsor. With respect to the operationalisation of these three constructs, the hypotheses 3, 4 and 5 were developed.

According to Javalgi *et al.* (1994) and Stipp and Schiavone (1996), the image of a sponsor indirectly influences the attitude towards the sponsor and vice versa. The results of the verification of hypotheses 3 support this statement. All three paths of the construct attitude towards the sponsor were highly significant and the beta coefficient indicated that the attitude towards the sponsor had a large impact on the sponsorship response. In content marketing, where the valuable content is in the foreground and the sponsor in the background, these results imply that the image of the sponsor still have an influence on the content. Taking this insight into account, content marketing practitioners should focus on both valuable content, and appropriate image.

Speed and Thompson (2000) assume that if the consumer has a positive sincere opinion of the sponsorship, the better the impact on the sponsors' image. This statement is supported by the results of hypothesis 4. In line with this, the beta values show that the perceived sincerity of the company (Red Bull) had a significant impact on all three response variables. So content marketing practitioners who employ sponsorship to produce content, should note that the perceived goodwill of the sponsor influences the sponsorship response.

According to Speed and Thompson's (2000) study, consumers show less interest in sponsors that sponsor a large number of activities than in sponsors who concentrate on only one or two events. In the current study, hypothesis 5, proposing that there is a negative relationship between a high-perceived ubiquity of the sponsor and the consumer's response was rejected. With regard to the main aim of content marketing, delivering valuable content, this outcome makes sense (Pulizzi, 2013.a.; CMI, 2015). For this reason the activity of the sponsor is incidental, whereas the communicated content is essential. The popularity of the video used for this research, which is a compilation of all different kinds of sponsorships Red Bull is involved in, supports this conclusion. It has nearly half of a million clicks (Best of Red Bull all

time, 2013). For content marketing practitioners this implies that they can communicate diverse content, as long the content is appealing to the consumer.

7.3.3. Perception of congruence between sponsor and event

Stipp and Schiavone (1996) underpin the importance of congruence between sponsor and event, known as the sponsor-event fit in sponsorship. Hypothesis 6 verifying the importance of sponsor-event fit in the content marketing context was rejected. This rejection can be explained similarly to the rejection of hypothesis 5. The sponsor-event fit was also not as important as the communicated content.

In conclusion, sponsorship basics, like attitude towards the event, provide important insights for a successful application of content marketing. When it comes to the attitude towards the event and congruence between sponsor and event, marketing practitioners must gauge what is really beneficial to produce appealing/valuable content. The question whether emotions take an important role in this specific application of content marketing is presented in the next section.

7.3.4. Emotional Factors

The emotional factors, verifying a possible emotional moderation of content marketing, were verbalised by pleasure (i.e. valence of the emotion) and arousal (i.e. intensity of the emotion). According to Ferrand and Pages (1999), the exposure to the commercial message engages consumer in an inner emotional process. Buying experience and satisfaction of needs are just two examples of some well-known commercially triggered feelings (Burke and Edell, 1989; Huang, 2001). In these cases the consumers'/customers' relationship to the brand or product is built on an emotional connection. In this matter the hypotheses 7 and 8 were developed. Their results are more closely examined below.

Hypothesis 7 was supported by one significant outcome (H7n). This illustrates that the relationship between the consumer and Red Bull (caused by content marketing) is moderated by the valence of the emotion. The interpretation of the moderating effect implied that videos with highly emotional content lead to low sponsorship response and videos with less emotional content to high sponsorship response. This can be explained as follows: In contrast to a sponsorship strategy, which aims at high response rates, content marketing focuses on offering something valuable with a non-purchase-pushing intention (Pulizzi, 2013.a.; CMI, 2015). By providing appealing, useful or entertaining content, content marketing builds up

trust and a long-term relationship with the consumer/customer. Since content marketing leads the consumer away from the commercial relationship, it can be inferred that: the less the sponsor is perceived, the higher the value of the content perceived.

Hypothesis 8 verified whether the intensity of emotions has a moderating effect on the relationship (caused by content marketing) between the consumer and Red Bull. This hypothesis was supported by two significant outcomes (H8I and H8o). The interpretation of the moderation effect for both significant outcomes implied that videos with highly emotional content lead to low sponsorship response and videos with less emotional content to high sponsorship response. When one looks at all three interpretations of the moderation effect, the consistency is obvious. More precisely, the fact that this interpretation is the same as the one above illustrates an emotional moderation effect in content video marketing. For content marketing practitioners this indicates that highly emotional content diverts the consumer from the regular commercial intent of advertising and generates an extraordinary relationship between consumer and brand/company. These results are in line with the definition of content marketing and provide new insights with regard to the integration of emotions into content marketing strategies.

7.4. ADDRESSING THE RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

Having been seeded in the three main objectives of this thesis, this section starts with the conclusion of the secondary objective. The purpose of the secondary objective was to examine if content marketing in the energy drink industry sector only appeals to a certain audience. Due to the specific niche -high adrenaline, extreme sport sponsorship of the leader Red Bull- in the energy drink market, it could be inferred that the target audience is specific as well (Euromonitor International, 2013). According to O'Brien (2012), high adrenaline extreme sports are attracting mainly men between the ages of 18 and 35, which indicates a popularity of energy dinks among men. In order to test this assumption regarding content marketing, this research contained a gender differentiation. With a 59% male and 41% female constellation of useable answers resulting from the questionnaire, an appropriate starting point was achieved. In view of the descriptive and inferential results, no major tendencies could be noted for male or female respondents. Male as well as female results cluster around the "positive agreement" area, which indicates a positive commitment to the communicated content. Contrasting to O'Brien's (2012) gender specifications, the well-matched, entertaining and appealing video content of the research object convinced male as well as female partici-

pants. For video content marketing practitioners this indicates that they should not rely too much on gender-specified prognoses and rather resolve to appeal to as many consumers as possible with valuable or entertaining content. Beside the gender differentiation, the age limitation was included in order to restrict the complexity of the research.

For the primary objectives, the following section presents the conclusion on how consumers perceive the sponsor communicating with content marketing in sponsorship, and whether emotions, triggered by the sponsorship, influence the attitude to the sponsor/brand.

When it comes to the results concerning the effectiveness of the use of sponsorship in content marketing, four out of six hypotheses were supported. Accordingly it is possible to consider sponsorship as an effective application in content marketing. Furthermore the coefficient of determination, which indicates the power of the theoretical model (Wong, 2013), supported the significance of sponsorship in content marketing with meaningful results.

Due to the small amount of scientific research in content marketing, these results give an insight into video content marketing using sponsorship as a content creation tool. So marketing practitioners should consider the use of sponsorship, particularly in combination with the video medium in order to produce valuable content to improve and extend their reputation.

The results for the moderating influence of emotions on sponsorship response, triggered by valuable content, provided insights regarding the influence of emotions on emerging marketing communication channels. More precisely, social media make it possible to reach the consumer individually and receive authentic feedback (Asur and Huberman, 2010; Goh, Heng and Lin, 2013). In order to receive this feedback, marketing practitioners distance themselves from traditional marketing communication tools and concentrate on the generation of presence in social media (Pulizzi, 2013.c.). Technological progress promotes an improvement of content generation and an increasing content volume through permanent improvement of mobile internet. This in turn improves social media cost efficiency compared to other marketing channels (Kietzmann *et al.*, 2011). So the difficult task in today's online marketing is to provide something valuable (in order to receive something valuable in return (O'Brien, 2012)). The outcome of this study points out that valuable or entertaining content evokes emotions and these in turn increase the effectiveness of content marketing. The hypotheses that yielded statistically significant results indicated that the more intense the perceived emotional pleasure and arousal triggered by the content marketing video, less the commercial message was perceived. In line with the definition of content marketing above, emotions in-

tensify the objective of content marketing. Thus content marketing practitioners should consider the moderating effect of emotions on content marketing in order to improve the trust on a non-commercial basis.

In order to summarize, this research gave exclusive insights for content marketing practitioners on the one hand and on the other hand it established an academic basis for content marketing. The specific implications of this research are presented in the next section.

7.5. MANAGERIAL AND SCHOLARLY RECOMMENDATIONS

Online marketing practitioners are challenged as never before by the change from marketer dominance to consumer dominance (Giesen, 2015), the firmly established use of online communication tools (Trusov, Bucklin and Pauwels, 2009; Schulze, Schöler, and Skiera, 2014) and, together with that the increasing consumer-generated content (Tălpău, 2014). Due to the improved access to knowledge and the simplicity of knowledge exchange, consumers are less interested in a mere representation of a company/brand and more attracted to useful or entertaining content (Giesen, 2015). According to Pulizzi (2013.a.), content marketing has become a central element of online strategies. In order to illuminate this kind of marketing, this thesis provided insights regarding the use of online content marketing in the real world, on the one hand, and on the other hand substantiated the scientific literature with respect to online content generation and dissemination.

There is little scientific literature on content marketing. Literature on the application of – and the techniques around – content marketing, however, does exist. Most belongs to the group of consulting texts. This implies that the literature describes how to successfully apply content marketing but not its theory, and far less references background information. Joe Pulizzi, for example, who is probably the best known content marketing author, focuses more on the practical application than on the theoretical. In line with that, the title *Epic Content Marketing: How to Tell a Different Story, Break through the Clutter, and Win More Customers by Marketing Less* (2013), indicates consulting tendencies. Accordingly, the objective of this thesis was to investigate content marketing scientifically.

First, chapter two positioned content marketing in the marketing mix and provides a basic definition of content marketing. The following two chapters of the literature review described scientific literature regarding the communication channels used in the real world research object.

In addition to that, the validation of the real world content marketing application resulted in new insights for theory and practice. More precisely, the results indicated a clear alienation from traditional marketing, which opens up a completely new arena for future research. Additionally, the results indicated that emotions triggered by content play an indisputable role in content marketing. In summary, this research offers exclusive academic as well as practical implications. The limitations that have to be taken into account are discussed hereinafter.

7.6. LIMITATIONS OF THIS RESEARCH

This section describes the limitations of this research. Firstly the limitations that had an impact on the quality of the findings and then the limitations that had an impact on the capability to adequately verify and interpret the research questions are examined.

When it comes to the limitations that had an impact on the quality of the findings, the methodological circumstances have to be considered more closely. In that respect the age limitation had a significant impact on the quality of the findings. More precisely, the exclusion of the age group in between 14 and 18, as a consequence of the requirements of the UCT research ethics committee. This limitation is a not to be underestimated (Lenhart *et al.*, 2010; Duggan and Brenner, 2013). According to Lenhart *et al.* (2010), more and more teenagers use the internet as the central communication and entertainment platform. In fact, e.g. 73% of American teenagers with internet access use social networks (Lenhart *et al.*, 2010). Indeed these numbers are not directly transferable to South African teens but the fact that 22% of the South African population has an active account of any social network is indicative of the increasing interest in and importance of social media (statista, 2015). As a reliable content generator and besides direct advertising on websites, social network marketing has become a regular feature in online marketing (Boyd and Ellison, 2008; Waad and Gómez, 2011; Zavišić and Zavišić, 2011). Thus, the exclusion of this specific age group is a noteworthy limitation.

Another limitation due to methodological circumstances is the application of the non-probability sampling technique. According to Malhotra (2010), nonprobability sampling does not involve a random selection of respondents. It is therefore no longer possible to make generalisations from the sample on the population that is examined. However, the relative large sample size of 557 valid responses of this research allows for meaningful conclusion.

With respect to the limitations that had an impact on the capability to adequately verify and interpret the research question, the next section will focus on the base of operation in greater

detail. Since the actual research object (Red Bull video) gathers basic information about the base of operation it enables the limitation of the research area. The research object for this research was a video from Red Bull (Best of Red Bull all the time, 2013). Due to the content marketing character of this video, the sponsor Red Bull was in the background while the athletic content occupied the foreground. According to Bal, Quester and Boucher (2007) and Bal *et al.* (2008), the context of an event often involves the emotional environment in which the sponsor's message is received. This research illustrated that perceived intense emotions for an event triggered by valuable or entertaining content improves content marketing. Thus this research gave an exclusive inside into video content marketing and is limited on this specific type of content marketing. Whether these results are generalizable can only be verified by further research. Precisely which future research is advisable is explained hereinafter.

7.7. FUTURE RESEARCH

When it comes to the change from marketer dominance to consumer dominance, particularly pushed forward through the increase of knowledge and accessibility of information, marketing practitioners face changing conditions (Giesen, 2015). The area of application – the internet – is relatively new, and hence content marketing practitioners rely on examples of practice rather than on theory. In order to shed light on the theory, this thesis analysed a relatively established content marketing application (video content marketing). Video content marketing was chosen because it is in successful use in the real world and it makes use of basic marketing components, for example, sponsorship or product placement (O'Brien, 2012; Pulizzi, 2013.c.). On this basis, the conceptual framework of this research discussed sponsorship and emotion components. Thus this study benefited from marketing knowledge and created a conceptual framework which is tailor-made for content marketing. However more research is needed, particularly because online communication channels are believed to have an improving effect on content marketing, and because these channels have yet to be fully explored. Thus there are critical knowledge-gap considerations regarding the communication channels. Furthermore there are knowledge gap considerations regarding content marketing. On the basis of that future research directions are provided hereinafter. Consequently, first the communication channels of content marketing, and subsequently content marketing matters of interest, are elucidated.

According to the B2B and B2C Content Marketing Report 2015 (Pulizzi and Handley, 2015.a.; .b.), the top five online content marketing communication channels in use are: social

media, e-newsletters, articles on websites, blogs and videos. It is beyond debate that these communication channels are well established and integrated in marketing strategies (Kreutzer, 2014). The content marketing reports provide ratings for effectiveness for every single communication channel on the one hand, but on the other hand there is a lag of information on how content marketing uses those channels. Thus an exploration of the communication channels of content marketing and how they are used to communicate/generate content would be advisable.

WOM is essential for content marketing but it is not clear how and when it enters into force. Thus a further gap of knowledge concerning these communication channels is the WOM generation.

Another major concern is to reach and attract consumers in a non-commercial way (Pulizzi, 2013.a.; CMI, 2015). Even more so if a person receives content not directly from a marketing practitioner but from a friend or colleague (Kreutzer, 2014). It is therefore important to find the most popular communication channels in order to infiltrate them.

This research explored a specific content marketing application (video content marketing) in order to position, illuminate and particularly substantiate content marketing in the marketing context. Since this thesis is the latest and only scientific research on content marketing, there is a great need to explore other content marketing options. More precisely the following content marketing applications:

- Content-specific content marketing
- Channel-specific content marketing
- Service content marketing

Research in these areas would enhance the understanding of content marketing and contribute to the substantiation of basic content marketing literature. So these basic research topics indicate the novelty of content marketing and with that the urgency of future research. The following conclusion offers a review of this chapter and the goals achieved in this study.

7.8. CONCLUSION

This final chapter first offered an overview on the findings and subsequently concluded with the research objectives. It turned out that in video content marketing the gender specification is negligible as long as the content is entertaining or informative enough.

After that it was concluded that this research gave exclusive insights for content marketing practitioners on the one hand and on the other hand created an academic basis for content marketing. The following section described the need of this research by presenting managerial and theoretical implications. Hereinafter the limitations of this research were presented in order to avoid inaccurate assumptions. The final section revealed knowledge gaps and gave recommendations for future research.

The purpose of this research was to scientifically illuminate content marketing. Due to an only small amount of relevant literature, a real world case was chosen and analysed. The conceptual framework that was developed examined whether sponsorship is an appropriate content generation tool and whether emotions have a moderating effect on content marketing. With significant results for both of the main objectives, this research broadens managerial as well as theoretical horizons. Particularly the confirmation of the emotional moderation of content marketing provides exclusive insights on content marketing and expands the content marketing horizon. Summarizing, this dissertation reduces the gap in academic knowledge of content marketing and provides a foundation for future research.

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APPENDIX A: ETHIC CLEARANCE

	RESEARCH ACCESS TO STUDENTS	DSA 100
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NOTES

- This form must be FULLY completed by all applicants that want to access UCT students for the purpose of research.
- Return the fully completed (a) DSA 100 application form by email, in the same word format, together with your: (b) research proposal inclusive of your survey, (c) copy of your ethics approval letter / proof (d) informed consent letter to: Mooinira.Khan@uct.ac.za. Your application will be attended to by the Executive Director, Department of Student Affairs (DSA), UCT.
- The turnaround time for a reply is approximately 10 working days.
- NB: It is the responsibility of the researcher/s to apply for and to obtain ethics approval and to comply with amendments that may be requested; as well as to obtain approval to access UCT staff and/or UCT students, from the following, at UCT, respectively: (a) Ethics: Chairperson, Faculty Research Ethics Committee (FREC) for ethics approval, (b) Staff access: Executive Director HR for approval to access UCT staff, and (c) Student access: Executive Director Student Affairs for approval to access UCT students.
- Notes: UCT Senate Research Protocols requires compliance to the above, even if prior approval has been obtained from any other institution/agency. UCT's research protocol requirements applies to all persons, institutions and agencies from UCT and external to UCT who want to conduct research on human subjects for academic, marketing or service related reasons at UCT.
- Should approval be granted to access UCT students for this research study, such approval is effective for a period of one year from the date of approval (as stated in Section D of this form), and the approval expires automatically on the last day.
- The approving authority reserves the right to revoke an approval based on reasonable grounds and/or new information.

SECTION A: RESEARCH APPLICANT/S DETAILS

Position	Staff / Student No	Title and Name	Contact Details (Email / Cell / land line)
A.1 Student Number	HRSBEN003	Mr. Benedikt Hirschfelder	benedikt.hirschfelder@mx.de / 0818890568
A.2 Academic / PASS Staff No.			
A.3 Visitor/ Researcher ID No.			
A.4 University at which a student or employee		Address if not UCT:	
A.5 Faculty/ Department/school	Economics / Marketing		
A.6 APPLICANTS DETAILS If different from above	Title and Name	Tel.	Email

SECTION B: RESEARCHER/S SUPERVISOR/S DETAILS

Position	Title and Name	Tel.	Email
B.1 Supervisor	Dr. Gert Human		Gert.Human@uct.ac.za
B.2 Co-Supervisor/s			

SECTION C: APPLICANT'S RESEARCH STUDY FIELD AND APPROVAL STATUS

C.1 Degree – If applicable	Masters Degree - Marketing		
C.2 Research Project Title	Effects of content marketing on attitude formation in the South African energy drink market		
C.3 Research Proposal	Attached: Yes <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> No <input type="checkbox"/>		
C.4 Target population	Students and (Extreme) Sport Athletes		
C.5 Lead Researcher details	If different from applicant:		
C.6 Will use research assistant/s	Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> If yes- provide a list of names, contact details and ID no.		
C.7 Research Methodology and Informed consent:	Research methodology: Survey - Questionnaire Informed consent: Voluntary participation		
C.8 Ethics clearance status from UCT's Faculty Ethics Research Committee (FREC)	Approved by the FREC Yes <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> With amendments: Yes <input type="checkbox"/> No <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> (a) Attach copy of your ethics approval. Attached: Yes (b) State date and reference no. of ethics approval: Date: 20 Nov 2014 Ref.: Commerce FREC		

SECTION D: APPLICANT/S APPROVAL STATUS FOR ACCESS TO STUDENTS FOR RESEARCH PURPOSE

(To be completed by the ED, DSA or Nominee)

D.1 APPROVAL STATUS	Approved / With Terms / Not	* Conditional approval with terms	Applicant/s Ref. No.
(i) Yes - Approved <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> (ii) With terms <input type="checkbox"/> (iii) No <input type="checkbox"/>	(a) Access to students for this research study must only be undertaken after written ethics approval has been obtained. (b) In event any ethics conditions are attached, these must be complied with before access to students.	HRSBEN003/ Mr. Benedikt Hirschfelder	
D.2 APPROVED BY:	Designation Executive Director Department of Student Affairs	Name Dr Mooinira Khan	Signature Date of Approval 21 November 2014

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE TOWN



**Faculty of Commerce
Ethics in Research Committee**

Courier: Room 2.21 Leslie Commerce Building Upper Campus University of Cape Town
Post: University of Cape Town • Private Bag • Rondebosch 7701
Email: Irwin.brown@uct.ac.za
Telephone: +27 21 650-2311
Fax No.: +27 21 689-7570

November 20, 2014

Benedikt Hirschfelder
Management Studies

Project title:

Effects on content marketing on attitude formation in the South African energy drink market

Dear Researcher,

This letter serves to confirm that this project as described in your submitted protocol has been approved.

Please note that if you make any substantial change in your research procedure that could affect the experiences of the participants, you must submit a revised protocol to the Committee for approval.

Regards,

Professor Harold Kincaid

Commerce Faculty Ethics in Research Committee

"OUR MISSION is to be outstanding teaching and research university,
educating for life and addressing the challenges facing our society."

APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRE



Questionnaire:

Effects of content marketing on attitude formation
in the South African energy drink market.

Department:
Marketing

Researcher:
Benedikt Hirschfelder
Email: benedikt.hirschfelder@gmx.de
Cell: 081/8890568

Supervisor:
Associate Professor G. Human

Research on Video Content Marketing in the South African energy drink market

Dear Respondent,

I am a Masters student in the Faculty of Commerce at University of Cape Town. I am conducting a study on the efficiency of video content marketing in the South African energy drink market. You are invited to participate in this research and your participation is voluntary.

Your answers will be helpful to illustrate how consumers experience content marketing strategies. Your response will only be used for the purposes of this study and are completely confidential.

This research has been approved by the Commerce Faculty Ethics in Research Committee. To ensure anonymity of your responses, you will not be requested to supply any identifiable information. Your participation is entirely voluntary and you may choose to withdraw from the research at any time. The questionnaire will take no longer than 10 to 15 minutes to complete.

By completing this questionnaire you implicitly give consent to take part in the research study. Should you have any questions regarding the research please feel free to contact the researcher: Benedikt Hirschfelder

Many thanks for your participation.

Part 1

Indicate your level of agreement with the following statements by marking your choice with a "X":

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I like extreme sports.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
It was obvious which company sponsored this video.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
I admire the athletes in this video.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>

This research is concerned with your attitude and emotions towards video content related to sports sponsorships. The questionnaire asks you about your opinions of a certain video, your opinion about the company that might sponsor this event, and what you think of such a sponsorship arrangement. We are interested in your attitudes and there are no right or wrong answers to these questions.

Part 2

Please answer these questions by telling us how much you agree or disagree with the statements regarding the video.

	Entirely Agree	Mostly Agree	Mildly Agree	Neutral	Mildly Disagree	Mostly Disagree	Entirely Disagree
Sponsor-event fit							
There is a logical connection between the video and the sponsor.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
The image of the video and the image of the sponsor are similar.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
The sponsor and the video fit together well.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
The company and the video stand for similar things.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
It makes sense to me that this company sponsors this event.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
Personal liking for the video							
I am a strong supporter of this video.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
I enjoy following the coverage in this video.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
This video makes an important statement.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
Attitude to the company							
This is a good company.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
I like this company.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
I am pleased to this company.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
I have a favourable feeling about this company.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
Perceived ubiquity							
This company sponsors many different sports.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
This company's sponsorship is clearly focused on certain sports.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
This company is very selective in what sports events it sponsors.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
It is very common to see this company sponsoring sports events.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
I expect this company to sponsor major events.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
Perceived sincerity							
The sport would benefit from this sponsorship at the grassroots level.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
The main reason the sponsor would be involved in the event is because the sponsor believes the event deserves support.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
This sponsor would be likely to have the best interests of the sport at heart.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
This sponsor would probably support the event even if it had a lower reputation.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
Status of the event							
This event has international significance.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
This is a significant sporting event.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
Where I live this is an important event.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
Favourability							
This sponsorship makes me feel more favourable toward the sponsor.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
This sponsorship would improve my perception of the sponsor.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
This sponsorship will make me consider products from this company.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>

	Entirely Agree	Mostly Agree	Mildly Agree	Neutral	Mildly Disagree	Mostly Disagree	Entirely Disagree
Interest							
This sponsorship would make me more likely to notice the sponsor's name on other occasions.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
This sponsorship would make me more likely to pay attention to this sponsor.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
This sponsorship would make me more likely to remember the sponsor's promotion.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
Use							
This sponsorship would make me more likely to use the sponsor's product.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
This sponsorship would make me more likely to consider this company's products the next time I buy.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>
I would be more likely to buy from the sponsor as a result of this sponsorship.	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>

Part 3

We would like you to tell us how the video you just saw made you feel. We are interested in your reactions to the video, not how you would describe it. Please tell us how much you felt each of these feelings to the sponsor/brand while you were watching this video.

Valence of Feelings								
Perceived feeling to the sponsor								Perceived feeling to the sponsor
coherent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	chaotic
Warm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	cold
joyful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	sad
confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not confident
creative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	uncreative
unpredictable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	predictable

Intensity of Feelings								
Perceived feeling to the sponsor								Perceived feeling to the sponsor
exciting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	boring
enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	not thrilled
energetic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	inactive
Warm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	cold
inspiring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	uninspiring
encouraging	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	discouraging

Part 4

I identify my gender as...

Male ☐ Female ☐

I am _____ years old.

Strictly confidential

Thank you for your participation.

APPENDIX C: DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR ALL MEASURED CONSTRUCTS

Nr.	Predictor Variables 1= completely agree; 7=completely disagree	Mean	Standard Deviation	T-value	β coefficient
	Sponsor-event fit				
R4	There is a logical connection between the video and the sponsor.	1,80	0,958	34,602	0,801
R5	The image of the video and the image of the sponsor are similar.	1,86	0,924	30,671	0,801
R6	The sponsor and the video fit together well.	1,63	0,759	42,065	0,812
R7	The company and the video stand for similar things.	1,98	1,045	27,710	0,775
R8	It makes sense to me that this company sponsors this event.	1,56	0,797	15,550	0,649
	Personal liking for the video				
R9	I am a strong supporter of this video.	2,25	1,205	77,856	0,852
R10	I enjoy following the coverage in this video.	2,11	1,234	48,260	0,799
R11	This video makes an important statement.	3,13	1,462	40,552	0,894
	Attitude to the company				
R12	This is a good company	2,39	1,146	64,772	0,866
R13	I like this company	2,47	1,243	214,373	0,952
R14	I am pleased to this company	2,67	1,261	132,174	0,938
R15	I have a favourable feeling about this company	2,63	1,294	133,991	0,928
	Perceived ubiquity				
R16	This company sponsors many different sports.	1,83	1,117	20,713	0,722
R17	This company's sponsorship is clearly focused on certain sports.	1,96	1,245	6,684	0,486
R18	This company is very selective in what sports events it sponsors.	2,07	1,264	5,871	0,433
R19	It is very common to see this company sponsoring sports events.	1,94	1,107	26,230	0,819
R20	I expect this company to sponsor major events.	1,92	1,139	20,226	0,744
	Perceived sincerity				
R21	The sport would benefit from this sponsorship at the grassroots level.	2,39	1,348	27,083	0,686
R22	The main reason the sponsor would be involved in the event is because the sponsor believes the event deserves support.	3,18	1,668	81,597	0,898
R23	This sponsor would be likely to have the best interests of the sport at heart.	3,28	1,672	61,778	0,877
R24	This sponsor would probably support the event even if it had a much lower profile.	4,14	1,864	43,726	0,812
	Status of the event				
R25	This event has international significance.	2,54	1,404	23,403	0,774
R26	This is a significant sporting event.	2,55	1,269	57,504	0,887
R27	Where I live this is an important event.	3,74	1,848	23,969	0,727
	Outcome variables 1= completely agree; 7=completely disagree				
	Favourability				
R28	This sponsorship makes me feel more favourable toward the sponsor.	2,56	1,283	98,085	0,914
R29	This sponsorship would improve my perception of the sponsor.	2,52	1,342	131,433	0,935
R30	This sponsorship will make me consider products from this company.	2,88	1,598	68,267	0,870
	Interest				
R31	This sponsorship would make me more likely to notice the sponsor's name on other occasions.	2,07	1,092	57,028	0,872
R32	This sponsorship would make me more likely to pay attention to this sponsor.	2,36	1,272	94,888	0,919
R33	This sponsorship would make me more likely to remember the sponsor's promotion.	2,11	1,127	61,031	0,882
	Use				
R34	This sponsorship would make me more likely to use the sponsor's product.	3,11	1,680	166,960	0,944
R35	This sponsorship would make me more likely to consider this company's products the next time I buy.	3,08	1,680	156,361	0,949
R36	I would be more likely to buy from the sponsor as a result of this sponsorship.	3,34	1,695	90,386	0,917

Moderating variables

Valence of feelings				
Nr	From (1)	To (7)	Mean	SD
R37	coherent	chaotic	2,91	1,585
R38	Warm	cold	2,92	1,412
R39	joyful	sad	2,16	1,181
R40	confident	not confident	2,05	1,263
R41	creative	uncreative	2,02	1,323
R42	unpredictable	predictable	3,11	1,709

Intensity of feelings				
Nr	From (1)	To (7)	Mean	SD
R43	exciting	boring	1,56	1,072
R44	enthusiastic	not thrilled	1,72	1,112
R45	concerned	unconcerned	1,54	1,070
R46	Warm	cold	2,84	1,360
R47	inspiring	uninspiring	2,15	1,379
R48	encouraging	discouraging	2,44	1,426

APPENDIX D: CROSS LOADINGS

Nr.									
	PLE	ATS	UTS	STS	SOE	FAV	INT	USE	SPF
R 9	0,894	0,516	0,259	0,118	0,264	0,426	0,401	0,319	0,331
R 10	0,852	0,417	0,194	0,07	0,223	0,348	0,341	0,257	0,307
R 11	0,799	0,453	0,18	0,244	0,338	0,433	0,374	0,376	0,325
R 12	0,456	0,866	0,28	0,275	0,286	0,433	0,379	0,428	0,352
R 13	0,523	0,952	0,266	0,241	0,327	0,518	0,428	0,485	0,357
R 14	0,511	0,938	0,249	0,252	0,345	0,493	0,423	0,462	0,338
R 15	0,526	0,928	0,291	0,237	0,341	0,526	0,438	0,504	0,308
R 16	0,172	0,228	0,722	0,301	0,262	0,305	0,241	0,208	0,175
R 17	0,105	0,122	0,486	0,185	0,206	0,16	0,182	0,128	0,267
R 18	0,089	0,131	0,433	0,134	0,185	0,186	0,149	0,153	0,16
R 19	0,178	0,219	0,819	0,392	0,28	0,296	0,282	0,227	0,185
R 20	0,24	0,235	0,744	0,344	0,237	0,288	0,264	0,275	0,184
R 21	0,123	0,188	0,423	0,686	0,217	0,379	0,271	0,291	0,111
R 22	0,158	0,208	0,371	0,898	0,38	0,402	0,305	0,369	0,168
R 23	0,146	0,259	0,331	0,877	0,412	0,42	0,296	0,436	0,175
R 24	0,151	0,231	0,314	0,812	0,408	0,395	0,304	0,392	0,147
R 25	0,332	0,342	0,191	0,166	0,774	0,348	0,308	0,315	0,231
R 26	0,327	0,297	0,249	0,283	0,887	0,43	0,365	0,381	0,202
R 27	0,152	0,221	0,38	0,536	0,727	0,498	0,401	0,428	0,139
R 28	0,46	0,468	0,394	0,443	0,553	0,914	0,642	0,606	0,288
R 29	0,424	0,46	0,401	0,467	0,478	0,935	0,654	0,632	0,294
R 30	0,415	0,532	0,252	0,409	0,449	0,87	0,621	0,758	0,296
R 31	0,35	0,356	0,278	0,308	0,375	0,581	0,872	0,517	0,261
R 32	0,419	0,442	0,348	0,358	0,471	0,682	0,919	0,651	0,322
R 33	0,405	0,407	0,297	0,286	0,367	0,614	0,882	0,58	0,36
R 34	0,352	0,492	0,286	0,469	0,464	0,698	0,615	0,944	0,269
R 35	0,338	0,476	0,29	0,417	0,454	0,693	0,635	0,949	0,273
R 36	0,376	0,468	0,297	0,394	0,427	0,666	0,598	0,917	0,268
R 4	0,306	0,27	0,171	0,134	0,217	0,232	0,271	0,242	0,801
R 5	0,337	0,302	0,247	0,159	0,253	0,271	0,272	0,221	0,801
R 6	0,307	0,292	0,246	0,107	0,143	0,26	0,272	0,213	0,812
R 7	0,287	0,307	0,207	0,204	0,169	0,286	0,324	0,278	0,775
R 8	0,209	0,228	0,226	0,077	0,099	0,168	0,199	0,119	0,649